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EDITED BY

MARTIN G. BRUMBAUGH, A.M., PH.D.

CURRENT EDUCATIONAL ACTIVITIES

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EDITED BY

MARTIN G. BRUMBAUGH, A.M., PH.D., LL.D.

SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, PHILADELPHIA

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CURRENT EDUCATIONAL ACTIVITIES

A REPORT UPON EDUCATION THROUGHOUT THE WORLD

BEING THE 1911 VOLUME OF
"THE ANNALS OF EDUCATIONAL PROGRESS"

BY
JOHN PALMER GARBER, PH.D.
ASSOCIATE SUPERINTENDENT OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF PHILADELPHIA

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EDITOR'S PREFACE

THE educational mind never sleeps. Year by year it works over its formerly accepted guidance and recasts it. Year by year it reaches out and up for new activities and wider functions. The entire educational world is in constant flux. No traditional processes escape the challenge of honest inquiry. No school law or procedure is so sacred that it is not subjected to new tests and forced to justify itself in the light of changing social, economic, and ethical order. This is a sign of life, and not of decay; of hope, and not of despair; of progress, and not of stagnation. The thing we call education to-day is a vastly different thing from the concept of a generation ago.

New influences of moment are likely to arise at any time and among any people. There is no zone of exclusive educational propaganda. The world of civilized men is the schoolmaster's workshop. For that reason a report upon *Current Educational Activities* must be world-wide in its scope. The reporter must sit with clear vision and open mind within the educational watchtower and view impartially the passing pageant. He will see much that is ordinary and commonplace, traditional and unworthy; but he will see here and there the unmistakable signs of activities that hold in their compass rich promise of hope and help to childhood. These he seizes upon, analyzes them, relates them to accepted practice, squares them against great guiding laws, and indicates but does not seek to vindicate their right to be. He wisely submits his evidence to the great jury of thoughtful educators and the still greater jury of human adjustment.

In this survey for the year 1911 many hopeful and helpful activities, some new, others receiving new emphasis, have swept above the horizon with such an aureole as

to command unusual attention. They fill the searching spirit with courage and comfort. Some of them possess such brilliancy as to give warrant to the wish that they may become fixed stars in the firmament of education. The reader of this volume will find these revealed in an orderly way for his inspection and encouragement.

The emphasis of current educational thought rests unmistakably upon what may be termed *extra-curricula* activities. The opinion rising almost to conviction is that school life must in a wider sense relate itself to all life; that the hand that touches the growing child must touch it as heretofore reverently, but as now in harmony with all other hands that have to do with its moulding. The watchword is coöperation between the school and all other social agencies, such as the home, the church, the state, the industrial community. The school must vision itself as one in a group of precious parts that build up the mosaic of a life. The school must therefore broaden its processes, and its plant must serve the community in a vastly wider way.

As the school moves steadily into this new social service, it finds on the one hand a conservative body of teachers who crave largely specified aid in methods of imparting the accepted materials of the curriculum. These teachers have an appetite, and this is commendable; but it is inherited rather than satisfying. This attitude of the teacher is by no means to be condemned. It is the logic of his relation to a great and trying task. It is the expression of progressive conservatism. On the other hand it finds an aggressive and philanthropic group of citizens ready and anxious by gifts of time and money to take up these newer problems of an enlarging school activity and, without expense to the tax-paying community, to try out in experimental ways all these processes and set them as a demonstrated good at the threshold of the school. The school as an agency of democracy is greatly aided by this group. Many of the best things in modern educational

procedure have either been thought out or wrought out by private philanthropy.

If one were to indicate a movement more radically different and yet more largely promising than another, it is the general movement that in one form or another endeavors to make the school an opportunity not only to study but also to work and to play. The purpose of this movement is to provide by study the essential tools of thought and of expression, and by work and by play to relate the individual definitely to the recreational activities of life. The vocational propaganda has achieved substantial recognition. The recreational activity, deep fraught with moral purpose, is steadily sweeping forward. It is just as essential to a stable social order that the individual should know how to spend his recreational hours as it is to spend his vocational hours. The worker is a supporter in most desirable ways of the social order. The idler is a consumer of the social good and a menace if not a grievous burden to the social order. In viewing these movements the thoughtful mind will pause long and consider well.

It may be that the activities of the year, here so carefully and capably noted by Doctor Garber, will speedily bring to pass such cordial understanding of the newer functions of the school as to contribute in no small way to the solution of the mightiest problem of man—the problem of imparting to his followers in the procession of men all that has been bound up and labeled as race culture and knowledge, and at the same time so interrelating this individual to his entire environment and to his inevitable destiny as to make him a worker for his country, a lover of his kind, a reverent believer in his God.

M. G. BRUMBAUGH.

February 22, 1912.

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CURRENT EDUCATIONAL ACTIVITIES

INTRODUCTION

THIS is decidedly an era of educational experiment, and thoughtful friends of the school are recognizing the necessity of exercising discrimination in regard to the many things that are being exploited. A reshaping of our ideals has been forced upon us by the changed and changing conditions of society and by the ever-widening circle of influence within which we live. Our world is larger in all of its aspects than that in which our forefathers lived. This one fact alone has given us new and serious educational problems to solve and compelled a larger vision if we would solve them well. There are many vistas of clear vision that are full of promise; but there has never been a period when careful weighing and testing to avoid serious error have been more necessary. The very fact that so much is still in the experimental stage offers an enticing opportunity to those who are more interested in selfish exploitation than they are in finding out the truth. It is essential, therefore, that the things that are valuable and which should modify our educational practice or be amalgamated with it should be sifted out. And this cannot be wisely done without a clear appreciation of what the new thing is in itself, as well as its relation to existing conditions. This demands educational perspective. And this can be gotten only by setting before the mind a general view of the things that belong to the education, the progress, and the welfare of man.

President Faunce recently said that the main need of our teachers is to discern the real relation of the teacher's calling to all the other callings of the modern world. To this he added, that it is useless for teachers to discuss programs and schedules and devices unless they know what is their function in the crowded field of modern life. And a clear vision of that function will give one a rare mastery over the imperfections of his own methods and the obstacles of his own environment. This broad view cannot easily be gotten by the busy teacher restricted as she is by the exacting demands of the modern class-room. It is one of the purposes of these yearly Annals to assist her in getting a vision of the world-wide influences that are bearing in upon her work.

But education is a function that reaches beyond the teacher and the class-room. It is a universal interest. And it is imperative that the interest of the public in the school shall also be intelligent and sympathetic in all matters pretaining to educational progress. Anything less than this results in a divided interest, in unprofessional interference, and even in open opposition, with the result that the child is deprived of its rights to the best. So the public needs to be informed. And the safest public, as well as the most efficient public, in school matters as in other things, is always the best informed public. William H. Allen emphasized this in a recent address when he said: "We have made a fair trial of that ideal of school management which distrusted the general public and believed the safest public was that which knew least and asked fewest questions about schools. That ideal has failed. We must now seek after the ideal outlined by Commissioner Snedden of Massachusetts and so practically avowed by Chicago's woman superintendent, where the safest public is to be the best informed public, and where every public school gains the citizen support which it seeks and deserves."

The broader purpose of these Annals, therefore, is to

give each year to all friends of education a general perspective of the purpose and place in our educational plan, and the probable influence upon it, of some of the important events and movements of the year that may have a more or less direct bearing upon educational progress. This should not only assist in making clear the relation of each special educational interest to the whole problem and thus give a better sense of its comparative importance, but it should also open wider the way for professionally trained educators to secure and maintain desirable leadership in all matters directly affecting the work of the school. In this way alone can the highest efficiency be conserved.

The Year 1911—A General View

The educational ideal embodied by John Stuart Mill, a half century ago, in the statement that education is "the culture which one generation gives to the next in order that the culture already existing may continue" is rapidly giving way before a more progressive ideal, a more practical preparation for the present and a more hopeful looking forward into the future. The widespread movement for industrial and agricultural education shows the emphasis that is being placed upon the practical needs of the present. The persistent question as to whether we are fitting our pupils as well as we may for success and happiness in life reveals the serious thought for the future. Thus vocational training still remains one of the most important issues before the educational world, combined, as it always should be, with the necessary guidance to enable the pupil to choose wisely the lifework in which he is most likely to succeed. Although a satisfactory program for the vocational work has not yet been wrought out, the recognition of the need of vocational training has now become quite general and much that is beyond the merely experimental stage has already been evolved. Massachusetts in particular has accomplished a great deal during the year and Commissioner Snedden's reports on the sub-

ject are encouraging. Evidently we are rapidly approaching the time when the vocational idea shall be not merely tacked on to our educational system or even engrafted upon it, but instead thoroughly amalgamated with it.

Doctor Draper in an address early in the year embodied this idea in what he had to say about educational ideals. After making a plea for "common honesty" he said: "Education that has life and enters into life; education that makes a living and makes life worth living; education that can use English to express itself; education that does not assume that a doctor must be an educated man and that a mechanic or farmer cannot be; education that appeals to the masses; that makes better citizens and a greater State —that is the education that concerns New York."

These ideals of making the school a place of better preparation for the common tasks and duties of life are full of hopeful meaning. The old ideal, that exalted knowledge as the one desirable thing, needed to be modified by giving attention to direct training in the healthful care of the body, by instruction calculated to make the pupil self-supporting and self-respecting, and by the building up of habits that tend toward a proper use of time and effort. For these are the things after all that determine success and happiness and even the duration of life itself. No doubt, the swing toward these practical things of life will be too great and we shall see by and by that they are not the whole of life by any means. For we must not lose sight of the fact that youth is the time when the imagination may have plenty of wholesome things to feed upon; it is the period when ideals need to be implanted in the life; and when the emotional life needs stimulation as well as guidance. Very often it proves true that the view of life gotten in youth is the vision that is seen throughout life.

Such qualities as bravery, generosity, sympathy, patriotism, and righteousness are fixed in the life at an early age. There seems to be no good reason, however, for

neglecting these things in connection with an education that also secures a more practical training for life. Whether the education shall center around practical or around cultural things is not so important as that neither shall be neglected. There are already indications that we shall have courses of study in which the two shall practically be combined in many things, but also shall be entirely separate in some respects. But the new thought that the school must make more use of the environment and do more for life has probably come to stay. Certainly the newer ideal is more interesting to the pupil; and with interest and the personal influence of strong teachers, nothing that is necessary to the welfare of the child need be neglected. However, we are all learning that this thing that we call education is so much greater and farther reaching in its importance than we have even yet conceived that, whether we hold to the older or to the newer ideals, we cannot afford to be dogmatic in our beliefs concerning it.

Nothing holds out more hope for the well-being of the child than the rapid extension of home and school leagues that has occurred during the year. The home and the school are rapidly coming to a more intelligent and sympathetic understanding of each other. And the resulting union of effort is meaning greater intellectual and moral strength for the child. But it is becoming evident that the home must know more about methods of child-training, and that both it and the school must get a better perspective of the child's position in our modern life. To this end appreciation of the general movements affecting educational thought and practice is necessary. The child is moulded by its interests, and interest is as many-sided as life itself. Hence, a proper study of educational progress must take account of all the more important movements that are shaping the ideals and life of the people. Although it is not always easy to unite our adult population on many of the questions of the day, it is comparatively easy to

unite them upon the vital matter of education. And the rapid extension of knowledge of the needs of the schools and what is going on in them, as well as the gratifying growth of the bond of sympathy between those two important factors in the education of the child, the home and the school, is giving a new meaning and force to the training of the child. That parent, child, and teacher are all both better and happier for it cannot be questioned.

Every indication points to a growing interest in the home and to the most complete study of the various problems involved in its efficient management that has ever been made. This is largely due to the growing interest in the welfare of the child of the home. But attention is also being focussed upon the home by a certain type of woman who by her actions, if not by her words, is insisting that housework is drudgery and the sacred privilege of motherhood merely an undesirable slavery. True manhood, and especially true womanhood, are rising up in protest against such an attitude, and have begun to demonstrate not only the sacred privileges of the housewife and mother but also the fact that they involve intellectual and spiritual possibilities, as well as executive ability and business management, that make housekeeping one of the greatest of all professions.

The widespread movement to improve city conditions is one of the most hopeful signs in our life. There has been during the year a decided reaction against the tendency to speak of American municipal government with contempt and to look upon all city improvement merely as an opportunity for graft and all forms of public spoil. The sentiment is growing that to be a success a city must make the best possible provision for public convenience and for all of the influences that tend to care for the health, the intelligence, and the love of the beautiful of its people. Many of our cities are receiving the benefits of the wealth, the time, and the talents of its most successful people in planning and bringing to a successful issue the various efforts

for city improvement. And the large number of well organized, carefully wrought out plans that are now before the people of so many of our American cities should serve as an inspiration to those who are working for more nearly ideal conditions. That these efforts will influence the general public to live and to grow toward more worthy standards seems inevitable. That they will eventually surround the lives of our young people with better environmental conditions cannot be questioned.

The public demand for corporate as well as individual honesty, which has been one of the marked developments of the last few years, continues. This demand is vastly extending the field of moral accountability and is thrusting unprecedented power into the hands of the people. The moral education of the young has therefore become a matter of new and additional importance. We must now train our pupils not only for individual integrity but also for the right corporate relations to society. We do not live as individuals; we live in groups. And moral purpose and moral strength must often withstand the influence of the wrong inclinations and activities of the group. But there must also be training for positive interest in the group, the team, the mass; for in this way only can there be an expression of the vast social evolution that is changing the world.

That this coöperative training must be intelligent and broad is well indicated by the social unrest in Europe. This unrest was especially marked during the year 1911. All over Europe millions of workers have been rendered discontented with their lot by the words of those who maintain that they are not getting their due share of the wealth they are helping to produce. Much of this agitation is fomented by selfish demagogues and self-deceived fanatics. But that there can be great improvements made in the conditions and contentment of the masses cannot be denied. Whether these improved conditions can best come through material or through spiritual movements is

a different problem. History has at least demonstrated that all movements away from selfish ignorance and toward coöperative enlightenment have always been attended by an increase of general material prosperity.

A new spirit has lately come into all forms of business management as a result of the investigations along the line of what is now known as Scientific Management. The depletion of our material resources and the advancing cost of labor have forced upon the attention of all thoughtful people the necessity for systematic and intelligent study of existing conditions, with a view of eliminating waste and utilizing to the best advantage all of the various elements entering into production and distribution. Although, on the professional side of his work, it has long been a study of the teacher how best to utilize the time and opportunity of the child, various educational movements of the last few years are revealing conditions and possibilities of which even the most advanced thinkers of a few years ago were not fully aware. The health of the child, the utilization of the play instincts in all lines of development, the turning into value of the waste products of backwardness and mental deficiency, and the great problem of training for more fruitful living and more effective citizenship—all of these are being stimulated by the great economic transitions that are going on in the business and industrial world. Three things are becoming especially clear as these movements impinge upon the schoolhouse door. First—As guardians of the most valuable resource of the nation we shall have to render to the public a strict accounting that is both understandable and appreciable. Second—We shall have to render this accounting as the responsible leaders in many of the most effective social movements. And, third,—From the demand for expert knowledge in teaching and general social leadership, will emerge the most helpful things only provided all problems are met with sincerity and intelligent judgment.

The fact that several of our large school systems have been or are now the subject of investigation, shows that the people are becoming aroused to the need of the best possible schooling for their children. That such investigations are sometimes undertaken for ulterior purposes is true; and that they are not always conducted by thoroughly competent persons, or in an entirely fair manner, is undeniable. But as school people, we should welcome the demand for frank open dealing with the home and the public. Our work and interests have both suffered from being too much hidden behind the closed doors of the schoolroom; and we ourselves have been in a fair way to become narrow and dogmatic, simply because we have not been called upon to show our reckoning and the reason for our beliefs and practices as often as is good for us. Of course, all investigation of this most humane of all professional efforts should be approached in a spirit of sympathy, as well as in a spirit of fairness. But the public has a right to the facts and, where we are unbusinesslike or wrong in our beliefs and practices, they may justly demand a remedy in the interests of the taxpayers and of the children for whose training so much of these taxes is used. At the least, we should find a large measure of satisfaction in the fact that the free criticism of the schools, within the last few years, reveals two things that have been encouraging and rather surprising to us. These are: (a) the intense constructive interest of all classes in the efficiency of the schools; and (b) the feeling of the supreme importance of schoolwork, as compared with other lines of human effort, and the fundamental need for it for all true success. While we have always known of the knowledge-imparting value of the school, and for some time past have been aware of the strong moral significance of all matters pertaining to the training of the child, we have not been so sympathetically alert to the growing interest and belief in the school as a great center of physical and social uplift. And it is altogether likely that much of the criticism that has arisen

has been due to a feeling of disappointment that the school has not measured up to the high ideal that is in the mind and heart of its critics.

The general demand for education is becoming far more real and insistent. Although the people are deeply and continually interested in business and industrial life, and are occasionally wrought up over political situations, they are now beginning to see that neither business life nor the affairs of the State will be well conducted unless the people, old and young, are well educated in body, mind, and spirit. Nor is it any longer regarded as sufficient to have only the leaders of thought—the efficient members of the State—well educated; for it is seen that, without proper education of the masses, the people are too easily misled and their energy only too apt to find an unproductive as well as an undesirable outlet. This makes education in its broad aspect a matter of peculiar interest to the State. And many in our own country are raising the question whether, while money is being so liberally appropriated for the conservation of forests and streams, there should not also be more liberal provision made by the National Government for assisting the States in conserving these higher interests of the people. The demand for such general aid has been formulated in some fashion at almost every educational conference of the year. The way is being prepared for utilizing such assistance effectually by the more complete and harmonious organization of the active forces of human society that is now proceeding so rapidly. The past year saw great advances in this direction. The vital relationships involved in human dependence and human interdependence are being seen in industry and politics as never before. The value of coöperation and the submerging of the non-essentials in education, religion, and all lines of human uplift, are leading to a fuller realization of individual possibilities and to a higher good for the various social groups. Many of the meetings on social problems held during the year emphasized the

serious weakening of effort that has been caused by an undue multiplication of organizations with similar purposes, by lack of understanding and coöperation between coördinate efforts, and through lack of insight in regard to essentials and non-essentials. The one fact of a clearer general knowledge of what is being done and needs to be done by related efforts is of itself eliminating much of the friction and overlapping that have been lowering results.

A marked social development of the year has been the great increase in the means of satisfying the dramatic instincts of the people. Much of this has taken the form of commercial exploitation through moving-picture dramas and short plays on the stage of the relatively cheap vaudeville theatre, and has given rise to new problems of moral censorship with a view of keeping out the harmful and degrading. But some of it has manifested itself in out-of-door dramas and pageants that have been distinctly instructive, as well as fully satisfying to the dramatic instincts. The wholesome interest and instruction, as well as the revelations of unknown talent, developed by these more desirable representations of "the human drama" emphasize their great value in all educational effort.

Although there have been an unusual number of war-like disturbances during the year, for the most part they have been in the nature of revolutions or of manœuvring for trade or territorial advantage. In the case of Italy and Turkey there has been actual war, but it has been entered into in a half-hearted and wholly unprepared way by Turkey. On the other hand, stands the fact that disputes which at one time would have furnished full cause for serious wars have called forth a strong and almost universal sentiment insisting that a basis of settlement ought to be found. And there has been the still more impressive fact of an agreement for the arbitration of all disputes which has been entered into by representatives of England, France and the United States—a peace pact that Germany is also likely to endorse. Whether this

agreement will be ratified by the governments of the respective countries involved remains to be seen. Whether it will also lead to immediate results in the limitation of armaments is a question. Great Britain still holds to its "Two-Power standard" for its navy, and President Taft has urged, with apparently good reasons, the maintenance of the two-battleships-each-year policy until our navy is raised to a forty-ship basis. But Germany this year has arranged for only one battleship, a sign of moderation that should tend to lessen competition in these directions and help toward a better and more kindly understanding between the nations under even the most trying conditions. And the influence of all of the great Powers has been used, in as direct and forcible a manner as international courtesy will permit, toward the settlement of warlike difficulties everywhere. So that possibly with the single exception of the menacing attitude of Russia, altogether the friends of peace have reason to feel encouraged in a continuance of their efforts toward international friendliness and general good-will among men.

The religious movements of the year 1911 have been well organized and, though quiet, have been persistent and productive of a steady advance in spiritual interest. No one can honestly study the growth of such organized efforts as that of the Layman's Missionary Movement and the Men and Religion Forward Movement without being convinced that there are multitudes of American men to-day who recognize the saving power of religion as against a much smaller body of those who were convinced believers a quarter of a century ago. The number of persons who are recognizing it as a duty and a privilege to give not only money but also themselves to the things for which religion stands is constantly increasing. If this awakening results in personal service wholly consecrated to the Divine, the future will be bright with hope. If, on the other hand, organization, outward manifestation, and spiritual work merely for the work's sake, become the domi-

nant things, much of the resulting good will be stifled by self-interest. One of the serious dangers of our day in religion, education, and all allied interests, is that organization, outward show, and the appearances of great activity may disguise the fact that there has been after all but little true growth. The fruits of the spirit have their sources in things far deeper than this.

A great wave of play has been sweeping over the country and carrying on its crest a general effort to secure proper playgrounds and recreation centers almost everywhere. In the wake of this great movement have appeared a number of coördinate social efforts which are bearing more or less good results. One of these, the Boy Scout movement, has attained to special prominence because of the successful appeal that it makes to the natural play instincts, in its effort to secure both instruction and discipline. Altogether, the subject of play seems so important at this time that it is made the subject of the first chapter of this year's Annals, just as Vocational Education received a more extended treatment in last year's Annals.

PART I

CHAPTER I

RECREATION

THERE are four things in which the educational and social worlds have taken a vital interest during the last few years. These are (1) educating for life; (2) play, athletics, and legitimate amusements; (3) the public health; and (4) training for citizenship in a republic. The first of these, under the title of Vocational Education, formed an important part of last year's "Annals of Educational Progress." The second, under the heading of Recreation, it is deemed advisable to give somewhat full treatment in this volume of the Annals. The broad term Recreation is used because it is purposed to treat the subject in a more inclusive manner than could legitimately be done under any of the above separate titles. Also because we are learning in these days something of the recreative possibilities of interesting and inspiring work, as well as of the upbuilding power of judicious play and the absolute necessity for adequate periods of rest. That there is a vital connection between finding pleasure in work and the pleasures of play, greatly simplifies the problems of education and helps to give promise for the future efficiency of mankind. To understand this connection and to see the necessity for recreative work as well as for creative play, it is necessary to grasp as fully as possible how the desire for such activities has originated and developed in the life of human beings.

Four Vital Things

The Origin of Play

Several important theories have been advanced as to the probable origin of the tendency to play. The first of these, usually known as the surplus energy theory, was scientifically formulated by Herbert Spencer in his "Principles of Psychology," although it had also been advanced by Schiller when he accounted for play by saying that it is an aimless expenditure of exuberant strength which is its own excuse for action. Spencer indicates that nerve processes are seldom in a state of inactivity and that a tendency to discharge is characteristic of all accumulations of nervous energy in the ganglion cells of the brain and spinal cord. "As a result of the advanced development of man and the higher animals they have, first, more force than is needed in the struggle for existence; and, second, are able to allow some of their powers longer periods of rest while others are being exercised, and thus results the aimless activity which we call play, and which is agreeable to the individual producing it."

Surplus Energy Theory

Realizing the difficulty of grasping fundamental conditions in the complex activities and influences of our modern life, Dr. Groos, the eminent European scientist, made a careful study of the play of animals before he undertook to investigate the origin of play in man. As a result of his investigations he questions in his "Play of Man" the validity of Spencer's surplus-energy theory. He says it does not account for the fact that each species of higher animal has a kind of play peculiar to itself. If the tendency to relieve the tension of surplus energy fully accounted for play, then there should be as much similarity in the play of various animals as there is in their respective nervous systems. This question also arose in Spencer's mind, but he attempts to account for these variations by saying that they are due to imitation and that the actions imitated are precisely the ones which are important in the

Instinct Theory

subsequent career of the animal. Groos, however, claims that the variations are due to something deeper than imitation and that "the life of impulse and instinct alone can make special forms of play comprehensible to us." A ball of cord rolled toward a kitten, even after it has exhausted its nerve energy in play, will set its claws in motion just as the sight of a mouse will affect the full-grown cat. Nor is it an unusual thing for a youth to continue to play long after any surplus energy he may have possessed becomes used up and feelings of exhaustion have begun to manifest themselves. Hence, the presence of surplus-energy does not seem to be either a necessary or a universal condition of play.

Change of Activity Theory

Lazarus advanced a modification of the surplus-energy theory to the effect that, when we are tired of mental or physical labor and still do not wish to sleep or rest, we are apt to engage in the recreative activity of play. When, for example, a student goes to have a game of tenpins in the evening, he thereby tones up his relaxed mental powers, at the same time that he finds a means of relieving the accumulated motor impulses which have been repressed during his mental work at the desk. One of the striking things connected with this recreation theory of the origin of play is the fact that the agreeable change of activity may be to a not too closely allied form of work, as well as to play. Fresh objects, varying the direction of effort or of strain, a slight change in our mental or physical attitude toward what we are doing, often serve to dispel the sense of fatigue. Hence, Lazarus has given us a very interesting explanation of recreative work as well as of recreative play. But Groos points out that this explanation of the origin of play is inadequate to explain active and long continued recreations, where there can no longer be either mental or motor superfluous energy pressing for discharge.

With the rise of the theory of evolution has come an explanation of play based upon various theories of the

origin and development of life. This biological explanation is based upon Darwin's two fundamental ideas of evolution: first, evolution by means of acquired characteristics; second, evolution by means of the survival of the fittest in the struggle for existence. To our primitive ancestors life must have been full of the serious business of securing a living through hunting and fishing; of acquiring strength, skill, and courage for attack and defense in war; of inventing, to find means of greater comfort and safety; and of social union into tribes for greater power and protection. With the advance of civilization and the lessening of the strain of the struggle for mere existence, many of the things that were essential for safety and life under primitive conditions took on the form of supplementary activities. As these activities lost their compulsory character, they took on the form of almost pure play and were naturally soon relegated to the sphere of the younger and less responsible members of the tribe. But the habit of doing these things did not disappear; they were too thoroughly ingrained in the life of the race. Hence, although under the influences of an advancing civilization the necessity and to some extent the form of these activities disappeared, the impulse or instinct for them remained. "Accordingly, we find in the descendants the impulses to experimentation, to fighting, chasing, hiding, social, and other plays." Schneider, for example, believes that the boy's strong bent for catching butterflies and other insects, as well as his propensity for robbing birds' nests, is accounted for by the fact that his savage ancestors obtained their food supply by such means. Swiftness of foot, the ability to throw and to strike with vigor and skill, were all conditions that placed their possessor on a sure footing in the struggle for existence. Running races and the various games of ball are the natural legacy of these necessary primitive activities; but, since they are no longer directly concerned with the serious business of life, they have taken on the forms that we call play.

Biological Theory

However, the tendency to distrust the doctrine of inherited characteristics and the inadequacy of the doctrine of natural selection have made it doubtful whether a full explanation of the origin of play is to be found in mere biological conditions.

Doctor G. Stanley Hall in the chapters on play in "Adolescence" calls attention to the fact that the child, in its play, exercises many functions, both physical and psychical, that disappear after their purpose has been fulfilled in play. These interests and activities, many of them rudimentary in form, are a direct inheritance from the past. In their form of manifestation they have little connection with the biological needs of the present or with the evolutionary demands of the future. True play, he maintains, is entirely free from any impulse toward meeting the demands of life. Inherited tendencies are recognized in the child's inclination for burrowing in the sand, for tree climbing, and for wandering aimlessly through the forests or by the streams. The nomadic life of primitive ancestors, the food and safety they sought for in trees, and their living in caves, fully account for all of these impulses in the child even though such forms of activity no longer serve any directly useful purpose. The young grow up under the influence of the same forms of activity that were practiced by the people of long ago, and, if every kind of occupation known to the people of to-day were changed, the impulse to play, and to play in the inherited way, would be unaffected save in so far as the new environment would modify it.

Inheritance Theory

James agrees with Groos that play is instinctive, especially the impulse to play in special ways. "A child trying to get into its own hand some object which it sees another child pick up, and the latter trying to get away with the prize, are just as much slaves of an automatic prompting as are two chickens or fishes, of which one has taken a big morsel into its mouth and decamps with it, while the other darts after in pursuit. All simple active

games are attempts to gain the excitement yielded by certain primitive instincts through feigning that the occasions for their exercise are there. They involve imitation, hunting, fighting, rivalry, acquisitiveness, and construction, combined in various ways; their special rules are habits discovered by accident, selected by intelligence, and propagated by tradition; but unless they were founded in automatic impulses, games would lose most of their zest." It is thus evident that while James accepted the instinct theory of play worked out by Groos, he at the same time accepted, in the main, the thought that play as it exists at present is an evolution founded on the doings of primitive men. In this respect he agrees with Doctor Hall in the claim that the child lives through the interests and activities of the race, receiving his inclination to play and the form of his play by inheritance.

Historic Order Theory

Professor G. T. W. Patrick has recently emphasized an interesting variation of the theory that the child in its instincts and development follows more or less closely the historic order of the evolution of the race. He has pointed out the fact that while the various theories advanced for the explanation of the origin of play account for the tendency of the child to play, they do not explain why people, young and old, enjoy witnessing games as well as taking part in them. Hence, he advances the theory that in play we have a more or less temporary reversion to the life of primitive men. Recent discoveries in anthropology, he claims, confirm this view. The well-known fact that the child to a large extent recapitulates the life history of the race emphasizes the reasonableness of his claim. Just why the child does so recapitulate is not clearly grasped; but there are striking evidences in embryology that its physical development fits it to do so.

Now if we regard the evolution of man as essentially contained in the development of his will—as an advance that is attained by means of effort, attention, and concentration, it is easy to see that these developments are the

concomitants of a more mature life and ill-fitted to the immature child. The child, to be sure, must be physically and mentally active, but, because of the immaturity of his voluntary powers, it must be along the lines of least effort. And these lines of least effort are essentially the lines of old race habits. Whatever our acceptance of the doctrine of inheritance, we must at least admit the transmission to the child of a tendency to use the old time, well-worn brain-paths because this makes the least draft upon his easily fatigued brain centres. "So, without will, effort or fatigue, he follows the manner of life of his savage or half-savage ancestors." And, because his physical nature is adapted to play and its activities involve a minimum expenditure of effort, his whole being finds delight in it.

But, by and by he will have to check these primitive tendencies and by education and effort bring more and more the newer and higher centers into use. Not that he either can or should entirely eradicate the tendency to play. For, argues Professor Patrick, these tendencies to revert persist beyond childhood; and for much the same reason as in case of the child—the use of the older and more primitive brain-paths allow the newer and higher centers to rest. This persistent tendency to revert to primitive activities then accounts for the enjoyment that young and old find in watching others play, as well as for their pleasure when they take part themselves. Hence also, naturally, we would expect to find those games most favored that embody activities closely allied to the life of our early ancestors. This accounts for the attraction of games in which there is running, pushing, hauling, throwing, lively moving up and down and around a field—games that demand alertness, strength, and endurance. Such games most forcibly recall the stage in man's evolution when he had to depend on brute strength, fleetness of foot, and the ability to cope with his fellows in hand-to-hand conflict.

A study of these various theories of play makes it evident that they vary mainly because in them there is no

clear distinction drawn between the fundamental question of the origin of the tendency to play and the form that play takes, or between these and the conditions that are favorable to play or to play in certain ways.

If we are willing to accept the modifying influences of instinct and tradition and the guiding power of evolution, we can readily account for the impulse to play on a biological basis. The following principles would then seem to furnish the main foundation for our explanation. They are given by L. Estelle Appleton in her recent "Comparative Study of Play Activities" as: (1) Sensitivity to stimulation; (2) power of reaction to stimulation; and (3) the limitations which the body places upon the kind of reaction that may take place. But to understand fully play as it now manifests itself we shall have to add to these (4) the controlling influence of imitation, instinct, tradition, and environment upon the form the play activity assumes; and (5) the conditions that in general are favorable to play. The child being built upon the same general bodily plan as his ancestors must of necessity use the same muscles and organs and in about the same way. And in so doing he will naturally recapitulate the inherited inclinations of the race. "All that is needed then to account for *instinctive* play is the impulse to *act*, and this he has at birth, endowed as he is with sensitivity to stimulation. For the rest, the child's environment, both physical and social, pours in upon his sensorium a constant stream of stimulation, suggesting the particular act of the immediate present. But the *type* of the activity *is determined by the stage of development which the growing body has reached.*"

Summary of Theories

In the case of the infant, with its rapid brain growth, the head and arm muscles being strongest control the type of play. Sensations that come through the glitter of objects, or through movement or noise, stimulate it to activity. So the rattle and the ball, or any other object that rolls, and bright objects and things with which it can make a noise are its delight. As the brain more nearly reaches

its full size, and bones and muscles and lungs are taking their turn at rapid growth, the period of running, jumping, and hunting games appears. These are followed by contest games, which develop the social instinct of playing in coöperative groups. This is the period when all of the organs of the body are maturing, when the fibres which connect the various centers of the brain and which play such an important part in the association of ideas, are developing most rapidly. As the body stops growing and the intellectual and business occupations begin to absorb the time, the recreations tend to take on forms involving the constructive imagination, reasoning, and appeal to the emotional life. Hence, it would seem safe to say that the impulse to exercise or use the growing parts of the body furnishes the only explanation needed to account for the play activity, and that the type of play is controlled in a large measure by the stage of the bodily development. To account for the exact form of play followed by a community, a group, or an individual, we shall then have to trace the influence of primitive instincts, of imitation, of tradition, and of environment. And, last of all, account must be taken of the conditions that are favorable to play in general, as well as favorable to the various specific forms assumed by play.

The Necessity of Play

A study of the origin of play reveals the necessity for it, not merely to satisfy the primitive instincts and to use up surplus energy that otherwise might turn into undesirable channels, but also because through play comes the best preparation for the more serious duties of life. The growth and development of any part or power of the body are dependent upon the use of these parts and powers. Using them according to the laws of their nature both develops them and stores up surplus energy within them. Lack of use permits them to lie dormant or, if they have already been developed, to sink away gradually into a

weakened and unusable condition. As the plasticity of the muscles and the powers of the human being disappear with increasing age, the possibility of development or of the renewal of a neglected part or power rapidly disappears. Hence, both exercise and plasticity are laws of growth. And the human being, child or adult, who violates these laws must of necessity pay the penalty in undeveloped or abnormal conditions of life.

Necessity for Child

In childhood, especially, play is a necessity. The child needs play because his growth is through activity, the kind of activity in which he delights, the specific forms of activity that his nature prescribes. If he is denied proper opportunities and encouragements to play, he will never grow up or will grow up stunted and perverted, far short of his maximum capabilities. For play represents the objects and opportunities to which all that is instinctive and formative and vital within him are inherently related. Joseph Lee has this to say about the play of childhood: "The thing that most needs to be understood about play is that it is not a luxury but a necessity. It is not simply something that the child likes to have; it is something that he must have if he is ever to grow up. It is more than an essential part of his education; it is an essential part of the law of his growth, of the process by which he becomes a man at all."

Need for Adult

But if Professor Patrick is correct in his view that play is an instinctive tendency to revert to the occupations of primitive man—to use the well worn brain paths which in the evolution of man have never been abandoned because they meet his fundamental needs and because they offer the maximum of satisfaction with the minimum of effort, then the adult also needs some form of play or recreation to intermingle with the more serious activities of his life. Especially is this true since there is abundant evidence that the instinctive activities and pleasures of the child never entirely disappear from the life of the adult. In case of the adult, however, the amount

and form of play have been greatly modified by new interests and new activities that have developed with the growth of his higher mental powers. While there are times when even the adult nature demands some free unrestrained expression of surplus physical energy, for the most part it finds abundant satisfaction of the primitive instincts in the higher forms of recreation—in play that is more closely allied with mental effort or with a freely chosen avocation. But for both the child and the adult some form of play is necessary for well-developed normal living. It is a necessity if body, intellect, and emotional life are to be vigorous, healthful, effective. It is a necessity both to the individual and to the social organism of which he is an integral part.

Play and the Body

Bodily tissue gets the materials for its growth and for its rebuilding from the blood. The more rapid the heart beat, the more rapid the circulation and the greater the food supply brought to the tissues. In the child, the heart beat is naturally more rapid than in the adult because the tissues are crying out for food; and biologically this hunger may be what is expressing itself in the play impulse. The child may not understand why he prefers to run rather than to sit still, but the exercise of his muscles stimulates his circulation and thus furnishes more food to the hungry tissues. If the opportunity to play is denied and this tissue-hunger disregarded, the impulse to do something that will quicken the circulation will remain to manifest itself in mischief or in rebellion against the authority that forbids the fulfillment of natural cravings. Hence, our "bad" boy is usually only a misunderstood and very normal boy. Not denial but a wise directing of these appeals for activity into ways that meet the instinctive need is the only safely educative plan. If all instinctive activity be denied, then the growing tissue must suffer the unavoidable consequences of partial starvation.

The "Bad Boy"

However, tissue growth is only one of the vital necessities of the physical body. The elimination of waste products, the rebuilding of worn-out cells, and the extending of the power and endurance of existing tissues are also of prime importance to human well-being. Every structure in the body, even including the blood itself, is made up of microscopic living cells. Each individual cell breaks down as it performs its work and rebuilds itself from food and rest. All of the processes of life—breathing, circulation of the blood, the digestion of the food, the activity of the brain in thought and in movement—all are due to the activity of groups of highly specialized cells which during activity use up their own material and throw off the waste products of this use. To get rid of this waste is one of the most important of all bodily functions. Four of the most extensive organs of the body are constantly employed in this excretion of waste. These organs are the lungs, the skin, the alimentary canal, and the kidneys. As this waste material is always the result of chemical changes in the body, during which such poisonous substances as carbonic acid, urea, and the decomposed waste of the feces are formed, any derangement of the functions of these organs permits an accumulation of waste that both clogs and poisons the entire body. Normal childhood is practically free from the ill effects of faulty elimination. This is largely due to the stimulating effects of pleasurable activity. This pleasurable activity increases the flow of the blood stream into which the waste is emptied and from which new cell material is taken, while at the same time it increases the vigor of the other food and excretory organs.

Power and Endurance

But the power and endurance of existing functions and of each renewed cell must also be increased. Of these two, endurance rather than strength is the more to be desired. It is less showy in its manifestations than strength, but it is a far more useful quality. It marks a great gain in current capacity and is also far more

favorable to length of life. The gain in efficiency which accompanies a body that can, under great stress and for a long time, cheerfully respond to all demands made upon it, is well worth striving for. It usually marks the difference between success and failure, between throwing off the attacks of disease and weakly yielding to them. But it is well to remember that endurance comes only through general good health, through securing and maintaining vigor in all parts and functions of the body. Without this, the work of the weakened or diseased portion falls upon other organs not so well adapted to the purpose, and the efficiency of the body is to that extent impaired. Hence, both in work and in play the thing to be sought for is endurance rather than strength. And whatever promotes health tends toward this reserve power, and reserve power tends toward everything else that makes life worth living.

Play and the Intellect

But the body is the servant of the mind. In right-handed people the entire right hemisphere of the brain devotes itself to the control of the voluntary movements of the body. While the great mass of our muscular activities are merely reflected responses to nerve stimulation, every cell of the body is in sympathetic touch with this portion of the brain. And this hemisphere itself is connected by myriads of fibres with the left hemisphere of the brain, in which are localized the functions of thought. Hence, in general, whatever acts favorably upon bodily functions makes possible greater mental power. And the child who, through lack of play or through perverted play, grows up with a dwarfed or deformed physical nature is handicapped in his efforts for mental maturity Like in the physical body, a showy strength may be developed along some one line, but general mental alertness, vigor, and endurance will be impossible.

Cell growth and tissue training in the brain follow the same general laws that pertain to other parts of the body.

The most favorable time for such growth and organization of power is in childhood, the period of greatest plasticity and most vigorous cell growth. We now know that, if a new language or a new mental power is to be acquired, it can be done only by building up in the brain a new layer of gray nerve cells superimposed upon the old. This can be done only through the mental efforts of the individual himself, and becomes more and more difficult with the advancing years with their well-established brain-paths, their slower cell growth, and the loss of youthful plasticity of nerve material. Childhood and youth are therefore the favorable periods for learning new things, and whatever stimulates the mental life to greater self-activity during these periods of life is also most favorable to growth in intellectual power. Hence, the keenness of interest, the concentration of thought, the intensity of effort, and the resourcefulness developed on the ball-field should bring rich returns along the same lines in the more serious concerns of life. If there is disappointment in this respect, it is because somewhere in our educational scheme or practice we have not learned from nature her methods when she stimulates to earnest and effortful play.

Brain Growth

Play and the Emotional Life

Sensations and ideas are always accompanied by feelings of pleasure or pain, the so-called tone of feeling. And the far-reaching influence of the emotional tone of the life, upon success, is a matter of daily experience. There is a momentum in early life that finds joy in merely expending itself in effort. This joy cannot be built up artificially and is difficult of further development after the period of spontaneous physical rebound has passed. The earlier activities are also surrounded by a glow of fancy that later disappears. The hard realities of actual experience tend to make us see things in a different light from what we, as children, imagined them to be. Hence, doubly fortunate the man whose early life was glad-

Joy in Effort

dened by the pleasurable sensations of play and who, by sane practice, has continued to live in the glow of these earlier activities. With a body that is full of vigor, with the disposition to find joy in effort, and with the habit of restful relaxation the glow of these early days is seldom lost. It is difficult to destroy the poise and recuperative power of such a life. If youth has found joy in the simple and elemental things of life and has conserved the bodily powers, every wind that blows upon the wholesomely alive skin will arouse a pleasurable feeling, and every stream and tree cause a rebound of the spiritual nature that will keep the face turned toward the hopeful things of life. Therefore both sanity and wholesomeness of life appeal for something above the struggle for mere bread alone. And the rational development of recreation is fully as important as is the sane development of the working powers.

But this is likewise true of the social nature as well as of the moral and æsthetic nature. Therefore play and recreation are also a necessity for the welfare of the state. Although the play of early childhood is largely individual and egoistic, the social instincts and the desire for coöperative play soon begin to manifest themselves. By the time the period of adolescence is reached, the need of companionship and team contests has become the dominating influence in the life. Youth cries out for comradeship in activity, for the satisfaction of leadership, and for a testing of the strength and resources of the group. This is the time of gravest moral danger as it is also the period of greatest opportunity for the social organism. Racial instincts are demanding expression, and it is of supreme importance to the state, as well as to the individual, that they find helpful rather than harmful avenues of expression. In primitive days these same instincts led to the union of families and tribes for their dances and feasts. This taught them the advantage of working together and also some of the best ways of co-

For Social Welfare

öperating and of establishing a helpful community of interests in meeting the more serious problems of their lives. They not only realized the increase of pleasure and power that comes from companionship in effort but, of their own volition, they also put into practice laws that made coöperative living possible and effective.

There was much in this primitive life that would be undesirable now. But we must admit that it was adapted to the stage of development of the race. Hence, if the boy is heir to the same instincts, we must take him as he is and with the aid of our more enlightened ways satisfy and refine rather than endeavor to suppress and repel. His instincts call for contest; for exhibitions of strength and daring; for the stern barbaric virtues of courage, endurance, and loyalty to the tribe; for close contact with nature; for intensity in hatred of enemies and in love for friends; and for an adherence to ideals that has its counterpart only in the religious self-immolation of his more savage ancestors. This is excellent material from which to build for good citizenship. If we have grown beyond the point where we can appreciate the longings and ways of the boy, we should endeavor to get back to the days when we too belonged to "the gang," and we will not then so greatly deplore his utter disregard of things that are not instinctive to him and which are clearly beyond his stage of development. Satisfactory experience is continually demonstrating the fruitful results of understanding the natural desires and ways of young people and the rich rewards that come from taking a true interest in them. This sympathy with young people indicates a healthy condition both for the individual and for society. While we are still too busy as a people to give the thought and opportunity to our boys and girls that we should, a healthy interest in them is rapidly developing and is one of the most hopeful signs of the times. Jane Addams of Hull House, Chicago, has issued a word of warning in this respect that should lay strong hold of our thought and our

practice. "We have no sense of responsibility in regard to the pleasures of young people and continually forget that amusement is stronger than vice and that it alone can stifle the lust for it. We see all about us much vice which is merely a love for pleasure 'gone wrong,' the illicit expression of what might have been not only normal and recreative pleasure, but an instrument in the advance of higher social morality."

And we must not forget that girls need the safeguarding influences of play fully as much as boys. The physical benefits that come from the free activity, the bodily strength and endurance developed by exercise in the open air; the general moral toning up that accompanies physical relaxation and release from external restraint; the sense of independence and the realization of self-responsibility; the socializing influence of good fellowship and fair play—all of these are needed by the girl and are more thoroughly taught in play than they can be in any other way. Girls are by nature subjected to crises when a vigorous body and sound nerves help to ward off much suffering; they have more temptations to become vain, self-conscious, and artful; society has subjected them to more insidious temptations, and at the same time holds them to a more rigid code of morals; and they, even more than boys, need the influences of a more sympathetic understanding of their associates, of the spirit of fairness that is natural to play, and the broader view of relative values that can so easily be developed in connection with certain games.

Need for Girls

And, above all, we need to remember that the enticements of play are naturally greater for the young than the enticements of sensuality, that fixed habits of legitimate interest and activity furnish the best means of counteracting the influences of harmful temptations. Better the expense of a dozen places of recreation than that one of our boys or girls should go astray.

Work and Play

But this world is not merely a playground. There must be serious activity as well as purely recreative activity, effort for socially useful purposes as well as effort solely because of the pleasure it affords. Münsterberg says: "If life and education are to be controlled by the search for pleasure only, education is a hopeless, useless, and meaningless task and the work of the educator cheap and empty—There are other demands in us, and their fulfillment gives us a satisfaction of a different order. Only if we grasp this higher goal of life does the task of the teacher become important, imposing, and glorious."

Fortunately, this joy of useful achievement increases in potency with the maturing years. It is likewise fortunate that the distinction between work and play is not always easy to see. The plays of young people, especially their competitive games, are carried on with all of the intensity and devotedness possible to give to serious work. This is also true of individualistic, constructive play. Therefore under properly controlled conditions, it should be easy to make the transition from play to work. The philosophy of the kindergarten is correct because it emphasizes the occupations that make a natural appeal to the play instincts of the little child. Only in this way can a normal connecting link between play and work be established. The tendency to constructive activity so manifest in the child, and its fondness for games, story telling and song, are all primitive instincts out of which the efficient kindergartner builds the solid foundations for serious work. All that would seem necessary then would be to continue the kindergarten idea by judiciously combining the efforts of play-director and teacher, giving, as age increases, an ever-increasing importance to work. This idea is gaining in emphasis year by year and is giving a significance to play never realized before. The association in the school-room and on the playground of activity with thought and of thought with

Work Allied to Play

activity, the formula of "Educate by doing," and all of the plans for appealing to the higher qualities of mind and body through the senses and through the natural instincts are all but efforts in this direction. Human beings are largely creatures of habit, and nature seems wisely to have provided for the habit of play out of which we are to evolve the habit of work.

But we are also under the control of our feelings, our likes and our dislikes. And it needs but little psychology to understand that our likes and dislikes are merely relative things. "The fact that everyone feels pleasure and displeasure only with reference to that to which he is accustomed and which he expects is, after all, the greatest comfort." When Münsterberg said this he was thinking of the relative satisfactions of the rich and the poor; but it applies with equal force to our habit of thought in regard to our work and our play. If, as parents and teachers, we are to secure certain desirable actions or avoidances of actions, the safest way is for us to develop in connection with them certain likes and dislikes, pleasures and displeasures, enthusiasms and aversions. And the combined influence of the child's love of activity, especially constructive activity, and the serious way in which it performs many of its activities, assists us in imbuing work as well as play with pleasurable feelings. And the extent to which we can do this depends more upon other things than it does upon the effort or time involved in accomplishing the work. While our feelings have had their origin in sensation, it is also true that a sensation may draw its tone of feeling from the idea associated with it. And an idea retains its pleasure giving qualities as long as the personality reacts by all of its motor responses in a way that reinforces and maintains the idea; and it will become unpleasant only when the whole inner movement develops antagonism to it. And this antagonism may develop toward certain forms of play as well as against certain forms of work. Hence, effort, whether given to work or

play, can be made and kept pleasurable as long as the predominating ideas of the mind aroused by it are associated with pleasurable feelings. Young people are not apt to regard any line of activity with disfavor until one or more of the following elements enter into the necessary effort: compulsion, monotony, lack of imaginative qualities, no opportunity for ingenuity, uncomfortable or depressing conditions surrounding the effort, etc.

Irradiation of Feeling

The importance of these ideas is seen when we remember the tendency of one emotional tone to transmit its influence to another. This is what Ziehen calls irradiation of the feelings. He illustrates this by saying that the memory of a flower of unpleasant odor is disagreeable no matter how beautiful or otherwise interesting it may be. And the reverse is equally true. This emphasizes the importance of the *approach* to the problem of work, as well as the supreme value of always associating only pleasurable feelings with work. As so many of the activities of work are closely allied especially during the imitative age with those of play, our problems of approach and association between the two are greatly simplified. Our moods are not independent, self-active psychical processes, but are the resultant of the emotional tones of the ideas and sensations that are in the mind at the time. And these moods may be the result of bodily or sensuous feelings, as well as of intellectual feelings. Therefore, the child who is both comfortable and happy in his activity will naturally get a full measure of pleasure from it whether it be work or play. And as altruistic motives mature in the life, work will begin to afford even a higher joy than play.

Appeal to Will

However, it is not to be expected that in the transition from play to work we shall never find certain aversions to overcome. One of the highest purposes of all education is the training of the life into complete subjection to an enlightened will. And there come many times in our dealings with young people when

we are under the necessity of appealing to this higher control to enable them to overcome disinclinations and aversions. Fortunately, in the life of the child most of these aversions are purely impulsive and with tact can be easily met. We are apt to regard them in too serious a light. We lose sight of the fact that most of the emotional expressions of the child are more or less the product of the moment and, under different conditions, would entirely disappear or manifest themselves in a different way. Many of the older psychologists were inclined to too serious a view of the evanescent impulses of the child. Later writers on the whole take a more hopeful and helpful stand. And this should be the attitude of the teacher; for, otherwise, even the natural impulses to play are often placed on the basis of serious offences and crimes. A pleasurable atmosphere for the working hours in the home and in the school is the best antidote for this kind of ill. For it is true of any emotion that its frequent recurrence will increase the sensitiveness to that kind of stimulation—will create in all of the nerves involved a state of unstable equilibrium. And when all coördinations are accustomed to lead only to pleasurable results, unpleasant stimuli will find no common and well-worn channels along which to flow, and, hence, will be likely to be diffused without any determining influence upon feeling and action. As in the case of pain, the threshold of pleasure for work can be raised so high that displeasure from suggested serious effort finds it difficult to enter. And joy, whether it be from work or play, is the true conserving grace. All others are only wasteful of physical force, of mental power, of moral fiber. And these are the things to be conserved; for, after all, the play activities of a people do not represent their highest capacity. Play does not furnish dire necessity, and dire necessity is the only thing that tests the highest and utmost of which man is capable. The benefits of play and the joy of work can only lead up in the best possible

way to the point where man is well prepared to meet the serious testing and stress that make him all a man may be.

Playgrounds

If the play tendency is instinctive in the race and if play furnishes the best natural introduction to the more serious things of life, then both the necessity of providing for play and the way in which it should be provided for are both indicated. In the days of family life on the farm and in the village the play problem took care of itself. The child on the farm was safely left to the imitation in play of the activities it saw around it in the occupations and life of the village and the home; in what it saw occurring in field, forest, and stream. As a youth he took an interest in the recreations of the community and was morally and socially safe, for his games and sports were shared by those who came and went freely in and out of his own home. As a young man he danced with a neighbor's daughter and shared in the traditional amusements with those who were on his own level of world-knowledge and desire. But our great aggregations of population, the dangers and sights of our busy streets, our freedom of communication, and our great tide of immigration yearly bringing in people with different customs and with different standards of morals, have changed all this. Play and recreation can no longer with safety be allowed to take care of themselves. In the older days the physical, moral and social welfare of the young lay inherent largely in the environment itself. Under the new conditions these must be provided for in some other way.

Changed Conditions

Commissioner of Education Draper of New York in his last annual report, referring to the necessity for free play facilities for the young, says: "The necessity of better provision for the children to play, to exercise, and to grow physically strong has taken tremendous hold on the public mind, and substantial provision for playgrounds has become a prominent item in municipal

Necessity of Playgrounds

budgets. The entire playground movement is essentially and fundamentally an educational factor in our civilization and it should be closely allied with the educational interests of the State."

And by way of emphasizing this same thought, Thomas A. Curley has specifically stated: "Much of the burden of future education, in teaching children loyalty, honesty, coöperation and self-sacrifice, rests on the public playground instructor. The very foundations of the Republic are to be worked out on the public playground; that is where boys learn to resist evil. A young man will never in his life have such great temptations, in the midst of such absorbing interests, as on the ball-field, when he wants to cut corners. There he learns that it doesn't pay to play crooked. Where can he show greater self-sacrifice than when he effaces himself in order that his team may make another run?"

The child needs a playground because his growth is through activity, the kind of activity that is agreeable to him and whose forms are prescribed by his nature and stage of development. If he is denied all privilege of play he will grow up dwarfed in body and in mind. If his playground is the street and places of his own unguided seeking, perverted and misdirected interests and habits are the inevitable result. And these habits tend to cling to the life, for it is a law of our being that modes of doing persist more obstinately than modes of thinking and feeling. Habits are easily formed in the plastic period of childhood and youth and it is of great moment to individual and social welfare that right habits be formed.

Fundamental Influences

There are three fundamental ways in which our thoughts and actions are influenced by others—by imitation, by suggestion, and by sympathy. And these three things are constantly at work in all forms and degrees of social life. McDougall in his Social Psychology says that "When men think, feel, and act as members of a group of any kind—whether a mere mob, a

committee, a political or religious association, a city, a nation, or any other social aggregate—their collective actions show that the mental processes of each man have been profoundly modified in virtue of the fact that he thought, felt, and acted as one of a group and in reciprocal mental action with the other members of the group and with the group as a whole." Thus imitation and suggestion mould the individual and assimilate him to the type of society into which he was born. Imitation is especially effective in the life of the child, and either for good or for ill. In the same way suggestion and sympathy have great power in moulding and modifying the life of the youth and the adult. If for no other reason than that in play and recreation all are under great freedom for self-expression and self-choosing, it is important that playgrounds, well adapted to right activities and safeguarded by right models and right influences, should be provided.

The Schools and Playgrounds

A proper playground in connection with every school building has become a modern necessity. It is a matter of regret to all educators and social workers that in so many cities, through lack of foresight, it has become extremely difficult to enlarge inadequate school yards to a fit size for proper play facilities. For the school should have beyond all other agencies the facilities for the encouragement and development of helpful play. Its regular hours; its adequate authority; its trained experts for knowing the child in all of its nature, as well as the best means for guiding it aright; its equipment for making a natural and easy transition from play to work; the value to the teacher of the revelations of the true character of the child that are made in its play; and the fact that the school should be a real community center, all of these things emphasize the necessity for providing proper playgrounds for our schools and of keeping these grounds open for community use.

Two of these points may need some emphasis. The value of play as a revealer of character is not appreciated by teachers as it should be, and we are only beginning to understand something of the value of the school as a great center of community uplift. Children, under the influence of imitation and suggestion, will often simulate the actions and emotions of their elders. Thinking that they are expected to feel and act in a certain way, they endeavor to produce the proper emotion without at all realizing its meaning and influence in their lives. Both parents and teachers are often in this way deceived and later on shocked at the failure to find the permanent results they had so fondly anticipated. In free play, however, the instincts and real character of the child are manifest, for its thoughts and acts are not organized toward such formal and conscious ends. On the playground impulsive movements predominate, the emotions are simple and comparatively shallow, there are few habits to interfere, and the child is almost entirely under the control of its own feelings and volitions. Hence, both teachers and parents will gain some of their most valuable information, both as to the true character of individual children and the nature of childhood in general, from an intelligent observation of the child on the playground.

Play Reveals Character

But the school should also be a recreation center for its community. The problem of providing in our great cities for boys and girls with limited or harmful home environments, when the school is not in session, is a serious one. It becomes especially acute during the long summer recess when the restlessness and the troublesome surplus energy of our young people become so fully manifest. The rich, of course, can provide change of scene and desirable amusements for their children, while the poor are apt to find employment for theirs to help increase the scanty income of the home. But, for all others, time is apt to hang heavy or to offer temptations to harmful activities after the regular routine of the school breaks up

Recreation Centers

in June. Much is being done in the way of organized playground work, school garden activities, free country excursions and camps; but none of these have yet met in full the demands of the youthful nature for daily play and recreation. Many are inclining to the idea that the summer vacation should be shortened and at least a month of the yearly school time distributed in the form of extra hours of recreation, or of more varied work than at present is followed. However, even this does not remove the need of providing school-plants that are properly equipped for play and recreation and for keeping them employed all of the time in the service of the people who have so liberally provided the funds for their construction.

The school is beginning to furnish an additional means of recreation. The wider use of the school-plant that is making of the school building itself an evening recreation center, is far reaching in its social as well as in its physical significance. Districts in our crowded cities where true home life is unknown, and where wholesome recreation is unprovided for, are breeding grounds of vice. Realizing this, the educational forces everywhere are opening these great natural community centers at night, for classes in physical training, for singing classes and musical clubs, for folk dances and other social amusements, and for swimming and athletic contests. The newer school buildings are recognizing in their construction the value of this work. The most costly school buildings are now being erected in the places of the greatest need. And to many a young man who knows nothing during the day but the weary grind of monotonous toil, and to the young woman who would have no other safe relief from the routine and hopeless outlook of her factory life, these recreation centers are proving a great boon. When we stop to think what it may mean to have a physically and morally clean place like this for the girl who goes home at night from the store or the factory to a crowded tenement—to a girl who has otherwise little social opportunity but that offered by

moving-picture shows, on the streets, or in the dance-halls, the social significance and possibilities of these recreation centers are apparent. The recreation centers provided in this way have already demonstrated to these young people that pleasure can be clean and wholesome; that fair play and consideration for the rights and wishes of others are worth while; that interest and effort in behalf of others is a source of the purest happiness; that the kind of organized effort that is intelligent, loyal to right purposes, and faithful to the necessary interest and effort to secure desirable results, is the open door, after all, to the truly important things of life. Such recreative influences, intelligently and sympathetically administered, transform a community, and its taxpayers soon realize that it is both better and cheaper to erect and maintain such school buildings than it is to erect and maintain prisons and reformatories. At least we may rest assured that, if proper recreation is not in some way provided at public expense, improper recreation is apt to be provided by private initiative and for selfish gain and, therefore, under the forms that are most seductive and difficult of control.

The Interest of the State in Play

Recreations and the State

This is a matter of deep concern to society. The home used to be a place in which the family had ample room to live, to work, and to play. But specialized industry has brought large numbers to live, to support themselves, and to find their amusements within restricted areas. Under this pressure of numbers, the moral tendencies of life find new modes of expression. When the home afforded ample space for its children to learn to dance, a far different condition prevailed from where dancing, if it is learned at all, must be learned in dancing academies and practiced outside of the home. This is why the character of these academies and dance halls become a matter of serious interest to the State. Doctor Michael M. Davis, in his study of The Exploita-

tion of Pleasure, states the problem in this way: "When five hundred boys may vent their energies upon five square miles of hill, wood and greensward around their town, we may leave their doings to their parents; when those five hundred must play upon a street a quarter mile long, crowded with traffic, shops and saloons, the city should and must have something to say about the conditions that shall exist on that street. The individual parent is helpless before a condition which may mean the physical and moral destruction of his child." Therefore such conditions become a matter of public concern and are largely dependent for their correction upon communal action.

And such communal action is also needed in the towns and rural districts. For we must not overlook the fact that the mere difference of conditions in the home and in the environment does not assure the presence of safe and helpful amusement. While in the city the menace is from numbers, in the more rural places the dangers center about the solitude and the dearth of healthy coöperation in amusement. One phase of this subject was greatly emphasized at the last Conservation Congress, which devoted all of its time to considering the best methods of conserving the farm and the life upon the farm. For it was recognized by these thoughtful workers in behalf of our most important industry, that success and satisfaction in farm life are largely dependent upon coöperative activity in regard to pleasure and legitimate amusements, as well as to methods of work.

Need in Country

Legitimate Amusements

And this brings up the whole question of legitimate amusements and proper play and recreation facilities for the people. Society is interested in the recreation of its members for the same economic reasons that it is interested in providing streets and sewers and schools at the public expense. It is also interested for the sociological reason that it is wiser for it to provide its own recreation facilities,

which it therefore can easily control, than it is to have them provided by those who are more interested in gain to be gotten from them than they are in their influence upon human welfare. But what amusements should be regarded as wholesome and helpful, and therefore favored, and what ones should be frowned upon, is not in all cases easy to decide; nor is it less difficult under our modern conditions to determine what constitutes a proper observance of the need of rest and of the Day of Rest.

A study of the whole question of legitimate amusements at once makes apparent:

(*a*) That in considering the question we are entering a domain in which there are many inherited and preconceived notions. To advance ideas running counter to these, no matter how limited the thought and experience of the persons holding these notions, is to place oneself in apparent antagonism to some of the most conscientious and substantial people of society.

(*b*) The whole question is in a state of evolution—a development that is being profoundly affected by changing conditions in the home; by the growing freedom of travel and communication; by the ever-increasing number of foreigners yearly to be assimilated into the great body of American life; by enlarging views concerning the purpose and need of recreation; by changing methods of emphasizing the fundamental virtues; and through the constantly enlarging sphere of effort of the school and the church. All of these influences are magnified by the tendency toward urban life and by the growing power of the city in the social organism. The rapid increase of wealth, and of the resulting leisure class, must also be taken into account.

(*c*) The problem is a vital one in rural and semi-rural districts, as well as in the greater aggregations of population. For, while in the city the danger arises in connection with the overcrowding and from the variety and number of temptations, in the country it lies in the deprivations

and evils suggested and fostered by the solitary life. The monotony of farm life needs to be broken by recreative pleasures. The adolescent boy in particular needs the help of coöperative play. Youths are often inclined to be silent and morose and to seek expression for their impulses and desires apart from their fellows. This is unwholesome and dangerous and has a tendency toward secret sin.

(*d*) The amusements of a people profoundly affect their welfare and efficiency; hence they are a matter of grave concern to the State. This being true all of the amusements of its people should be under the most complete and direct control possible to the State.

(*e*) The practical problem of effectively supplanting a forbidden evil by means of an appealing good must always be faced. Some form of amusement must be provided to meet the natural need and cravings for amusement, and, unless desirable things are put in a form that makes them to be desired, they will be placed at a disadvantage in the contest with the forces of evil.

(*f*) It is easier to build up right habits and desires in regard to amusements than to get rid of wrong ones after they have once been formed.

Without entering upon debatable ground by deciding whether this or that amusement is *per se* a legitimate amusement, a statement of conditions as they at present exist should enable us to reach at least some valuable general conclusions—

In cities and towns, especially where ample playgrounds are unprovided, it is a common thing to see children playing in dangerous proximity to rapidly moving teams and trolley cars; freight and coal cars and the boats along the wharves seem to be especially attractive to boys, where no better play facilities are provided; in crowded tenement districts there is always a large percentage of the unemployed and the vicious to suggest evil to youths who have not already become interested in wholesome amusements;

partly to escape the discomforts of crowded quarters and partly to satisfy the craving for amusement, young people congregate in moving-picture shows, at vaudeville and other cheap theatres, in dance halls, and in saloons; altogether the number of places offering questionable amusement in any center of population is usually greater than the number affording only good influences. To show the great number of centers of evil influence in crowded portions of our big cities, the College Settlement Civic Club of New York made a careful study of a district in the "Lower East Side." "Here within a region one-third of a mile square are to be found 315 saloons, pool-rooms, soda-water shops and stands, moving-picture shows, theatres, and other meeting places of possible evil influences as against 31 centers of recognized power for good. In addition to this there are 188 candy-shops within this same area in which a certain amount of petty gambling goes on."

College Settlement Report

The desire for dancing is a very common desire. According to Doctor Davis, out of over 1200 Manhattan school-children between the ages of 11 and 14 who were asked if they liked to dance, 81 per cent. replied affirmatively. Of these, 56 per cent. of the boys and 31 per cent. of the girls had learned to do so in dancing academies and at "affairs." What is even more significant is the fact that less than 10 per cent. of these children restricted their dancing to their own homes. And these percentages would, of course, be much larger if young people of from 14 to 18 were under consideration. The lower type of dancing academies are frequented by men and women of questionable character and their evil influence is very positive and direct. Therefore the social significance of the dance-problem becomes apparent, when it is remembered that the 100 dancing academies of New York teach approximately 100,000 young people to dance during the year and that 45 per cent of this number are under 16 years of age and 90 per cent under 21. A similar condi-

tion would, no doubt, be revealed by a study of the problem in other cities.

Theatres always offer a peculiar attraction for both old and young. "To experience life without living it; to see, in representation, human realities or enjoyable human imagination: that, be it of low or high order, is the dramatic hunger." As showing the immense throngs attending places of amusement in our large cities it is estimated that in New York the weekly attendance is 1,760,000. Of this almost innumerable host approximately 700,000 attend the vaudeville and other low-priced theatres, where it is exceedingly difficult to suppress all that is crude and debasing; the weekly attendance at moving-picture shows is nearly 900,000 and of these it is estimated that from 20 to 25 per cent are children under 16 years of age. The standard theatres, opera houses, and other places of amusement offer little that is objectionable, and a great deal that is educative and uplifting, but their price is prohibitive for the masses.

The Sensational

Two of the most serious phases of all of these amusements is a tendency toward late hours and a catering to the sensational and exciting that is disastrous in its effects. The latter tendency is becoming a marked feature of many of the so-called sports that are being exploited as money-making or advertising schemes. Extracts from one of our most conservative daily newspapers concerning a recent automobile race, witnessed by 400,000 people, clearly demonstrates the growth of this damaging desire for the thrilling: "The interest that was not merely inspired by a morbid appetite for blood-curdling risks and blood-shedding injuries was justifiable. The winner covered 200 miles in 198 minutes and 41 seconds. This was an average rate of about 61¼ miles per hour, as compared with the 58 miles an hour of last year's record." And again: "While the throng gathered on the concourse was dense, it was in no comparison to the thousands who mounted every point of vantage about the S

turn (where a serious accident had occurred in a former race), and the crowds stood and waited with halting breath yesterday as each car dashed around the twist, the respective drivers at each successive lap daring death more and more by turning at full speed in order to gain on the leaders or make up for lost time." These are startling statements which picture a condition of twentieth century tendencies that make us wonder whether, after all, we have advanced very far in this part of our nature from the gladiatorial days of Ancient Rome.

A great deal has been done, in the way of public parks and cheap transportation, toward throwing open to the masses the safer influences of nature; and, on pleasant days, thousands seek soothing and satisfying contact with mother earth and all of the wonders to be found in woodland and stream. But in this respect we are still far behind most European countries. So familiar have the people of France become with every crannied nook and corner of the natural scenery of nearby places, and so endeared to them has become this contact with nature, that one writer has well said the rivers of France not only flow through the country but they also flow through the hearts of the people.

In Europe

Dwellers in the country and in the smaller towns have superior advantages so far as nature is concerned. The thing lacking there is the interpretation offered by art, which goes so far toward developing an appreciation of nature, and the human associations which, after all, make every enjoyment worth while. With these things lacking, work on the farm becomes drudgery and impulse and desire grow morbid and self-centered. It is these things that are driving the boys from the farm and making farm life so distasteful to women. So grave has become this danger that, as has been stated, it formed one of the most important topics at the last Conservation Congress, whose meetings were devoted entirely to the consideration of the best methods for improving the farm and the conditions of life on the farm.

Finally, there is a tendency in regard to the observance of the Sabbath that is causing great anxiety to the Church. Amusements which in themselves are perfectly legitimate and desirable are drawing many away from attendance on Divine worship to spend the hours of the Day of Rest on the golf links, in touring, on picnics and excursions into the country, or to be engaged in some of the more strenuous games and sports. So many economic and social factors enter into a consideration of this Sabbath problem that one is apt to become confused in regard to the physical and moral need of one day of rest out of the seven. The growing strenuousness of modern life makes the need of some satisfactory solution more and more apparent. Such activities among young people as the Boy Scout Movement are making the situation acute. And the demoralizing influence of Sunday amusements which are being exploited for gain demands prompt attention from the school, the church, and society at large.

Sunday Amusements

With these conditions in mind it seems safe and practical to formulate the following general conclusions in regard to public amusements:

1. Ample provision must be made for forms of play that furnish an outlet for mere animal spirits as well as for the recreations that are more intellectual and æsthetic in their nature.

Conclusions

2. Means must be found, either through public provision or private philanthropy, for placing the highest and best forms of recreation within reach of the masses.

3. Forms of public amusement that are dependent for their appeal upon mere sensation or excitement must be rigidly suppressed.

4. Amusement conditions must be so controlled as to offer neither incentive nor opportunity for that which is degrading or immoral.

5. Amusement hours must be provided and must be so arranged as not to interfere with the time for a physically and morally wholesome observance of the Day of Rest.

6. As in a democracy the people will have the amusements they want, two things are exceedingly important: first, that the people be represented in their desires by men with enlightened consciences; and, second, that the people themselves be constantly educated into an enlightened condition which will make them desire the right things.

Athletics

Athletic Contests

Sport of all kinds has taken on new forms in recent years. Until recently games and sports, in our higher institutions, were confined to students within the institution itself and they attracted little or no attention from the outside world. But with the growth of great universities and the development of interest in the skill, strength, and endurance of the physical man, has come also a development of public tests of individual and coöperative sport between the athletes of the various institutions. These athletic contests have had a mushroom-like growth and a very marked influence upon the interest in physical training, as well as upon the forms and conditions under which in many places it is now carried on. It is only within the last few years that college and other educational authorities have given much attention to the games of students, and, as a result, these inter-institutional contests have sprung up in a way that has permitted some wrong developments to creep in. Now that careful consideration is being given the subject by competent persons, it is hoped that what is valuable in athletics, whether institutional or inter-institutional, may be retained and all objectional features eliminated.

That there has been much to justify the severe criticisms to which public athletic contests, in particular, have been recently subjected is unquestionable. It seems too evident that in many of these contests sport is not engaged in for sport's sake but for victory. It is made the end rather than the means of success. This often works great physical harm to the contestants and sets up moral

standards that are based upon winning the game rather than upon what is right in the game. It not infrequently happens that a member of a college team engages in an athletic contest when both his doctor and his own better judgment warn him to desist. Rather than be branded by his coaches and his classmates as lacking in stamina he takes the chances on sacrificing his health. We had better not have such contests at all than to have men blight their futures through such loyalty. And we can better do without them than to have the college atmosphere poisoned with the idea that victory and the championship should be secured without regard to their cost in health and morals.

The Evils of Specialization and Competition.—Dr. R. Tait McKenzie, of the University of Pennsylvania, read an interesting and profitable paper on the true athletic spirit at the 1911 meeting of the National Collegiate Athletic Association. Among other things he said: "The very specialization and study required to fit a man for a place in a good college team in football or baseball, or track athletics for that matter, is such that the mental strain of a football season leaves the high-strung college man morose, irritable or even hysterical, and now that the field is infested by officials and the game burdened by complicated rules the time has surely arrived for a course of downward revision and simplification and for the consideration of the following four maladies of amateurism, all the result of specialization and competition:

"1. The standard of performance is raised so high that the ordinary student, realizing that he is hopelessly outclassed, gives up playing the game that he would otherwise enjoy and that should be kept within his reach.

Dangers

"2. The competitor is elevated and separated into a special class apart from his fellows, requiring separate quarters, special diet and consequent privileges to make the drudgery less irksome.

"3. The publicity that accompanies the contests brings them into the class of public spectacles for which spectators pay to see and so acquire certain rights over the players, who become mere performers. Pressure is thus brought to bear on athletic authorities and rules committees to consider the spectator rather than the man for whom the game should be designed.

"4. The winning of the game becomes more important than the observance of the spirit of the law and the practice of fair play. It is a professional motive which is again replacing the amateur motive, which is the thrill of the contest."

Dr. McKenzie then suggests a remedy as follows: "And since I have spoken of these four evils that have always been the inevitable companions of too high a degree of specialization, ancient and modern, let me suggest four lines along which we must continue to work if we are to avoid the mistakes that in the past have done so much to drag down the ethics of athletic competition among gentlemen:

"1. Keep the standard of excellence down within the reach of more men by discouraging direct training and training under forced conditions; add more joy to the drudgery of the 'varsity man. Remedies

"2. Diminish the class distinction between athlete and student fostered by training tables and the privileges that the athlete so often claims as a right.

"3. Consider the player first and not the spectator, for the spectacle should be an incident to the game rather than its sole object and its practice a pastime rather than a commercial venture.

"4. Cultivate in every player that wholesomeness of mind, that 'aidos' of which I have spoken much, so important in our national life, to be found best in clean, honest and manly sport, that makes the sting of defeat nothing when weighed with the consciousness of having won dishonorably or by subterfuge."

So far as our youth are concerned, athletic contests, especially where the prizes offered have intrinsic value, present some very objectionable features. We are slowly learning the lesson that it is far better for a boy to be well than for him to be notably strong. It is also far better for him to have a well-balanced physical development than for him to have some part of his body stronger than that of his fellows. The preparation necessary to perform special gymnastic feats or to gain notable success in athletic contests is work rather than play. And for young people to win under such conditions, especially where there is a large prize at stake, usually involves serious temptations to unworthy or dangerous practices. Hence, while boys and girls both need and enjoy plenty of muscular exertion, it is safer for them to get it in the form of normal play. And, if testing is to be done, the tests should be such as keep safely away both from the point of exhaustion and from the point of muscular strain. The rewards can then be distributed to the many who meet desirable physical conditions rather than to the few who risk their physical welfare for the sake of temporarily accomplishing a point or two more than their fellows.

Dr. Luther H. Gulick in *The Outlook* for July, 1911, groups the objections that have been offered to inter-collegiate athletics also under four heads. But his are:

1. The limited number of competitors who can enter into such athletics. Out of Harvard's 4,000 students there will be not over 100 in its athletic squad. And conditions are not materially different elsewhere, as any effort to limit a boy to a single kind of inter-collegiate game is resented by the student body. Hence only comparatively few can engage in such sport and these will be too deeply engaged to derive the greatest physical benefit from them.

Few Benefit

2. All but those who are already physically efficient are excluded. Even though the ones selected represent so small a part of the student body, they are the ones who,

because of heredity, environment, and previous training, least need whatever physical benefits there may be in the training.

3. Success in such athletics must be often at the expense of scholarship, as the time and interest demanded by these outside games leave only a fictitious opportunity for study.

4. Such athletics are not for the benefit of the competitors like sports carried on within the institution itself. In fact, it is a question whether on the whole the results of the training are beneficial to the comparatively few who take part.

The American Educational Review for February reports an experiment in athletics that promises to remedy many of these evils, for it seems to be founded on sane and health-promoting lines. It is being tried at Phillips Academy at Andover. At the opening of the season in September, all who desired to play football were offered the opportunity to do so. They were divided into groups and these groups were then divided into smaller groups arranged mainly according to size. Each group was instructed in the same signals and a series of interclass contests was held early in the season. Out of the various squads the best eleven available were then chosen for the major contests with other schools. The work of all of the teams was continually under the direction of Physical Instructor Lillard, as head coach. He was assisted by four members of the faculty, who were familiar with his methods. While all received thorough instruction in the rudiments of the game, the more intricate and finished work was reserved for the squad chosen for the inter-scholastic competitions.

Football at Andover

By this plan, Andover expects to establish a system which will take a large majority of the students from the benches to active participation on the field, thus affording athletics for the many rather than for the few star players. It will also shorten the undesirable period when the finally selected team is under the spotlight of publicity

—a publicity which leads sensational and pictorial journalism to praise unduly boys who, because of early physical development, are able for a time to outclass others who have made greater strides in general bodily development and skill. The plan seems especially valuable in its effect upon the weaker and physically more needy students who are thus no longer neglected. It also promises excellent results in promoting a more general and sympathetic school spirit.

Football.—The experiment at Andover is particularly interesting because football, the most intense and popular American game, has been the subject of especially serious criticism. Its friends have defended it on the grounds: (*a*) that, as a display of the unrestrained exuberant interest of people of all classes, there is nothing quite to be compared to one of our great intercollegiate games of football; (*b*) that its popularity can be accounted for only by recognizing that it meets a real human need—the need both for player and spectator of an occasional reversion to the older brain-paths, worn through long usage by primitive man into easy treading for us when we would seek rest for the higher centers that are so strenuously employed in our modern life. H. Addington Bruce in an article on "The Psychology of Football" (*Outlook*, November, 1910) says, "Football with its running, pushing, hauling, kicking, lively scrimmages, and restless moving up and down the field, most forcibly recalls the stage in evolution when men had to depend on brute strength, fleetness of foot, and ability to cope with others in hand to hand conflict." And he also indicates that the tendency to use these well-worn pathways of activity has been transmitted to their posterity, so that without will effort, or fatigue we can follow the manner of life of our savage and half-savage ancestors and thus find thorough relief and a high degree of satisfaction; (*c*) that if we do not satisfy in a natural way these persistent primitive instincts, surplus physical energy and the desire for relief from the stress

Advantages

of work will find expression in such socially undesirable exhilarating pleasures as drinking, gambling, and the sexual vices; (*d*) that football affords one of the most effective avenues for the expression of the primitive instincts because of the massive effect of the number of contestants engaged at the same time, and because of the exhilarating suggestions that come from the singing, the bands of music, the gay colors, and the cheering multitudes.

In addition to these general facts the following specific advantages are claimed for the players of the game: It affords excellent exercise for strengthening the muscles; it develops virility and endurance and is an excellent discipline for strengthening memory, observation, and decision; it affords opportunities for sacrificing self to help a comrade advance the ball; and it also reveals the great value of men working loyally and heartily together for the attainment of a common end. It also is claimed to be a wonderful aid to self-revelation and self-mastery. Not only does the game reveal some of the weak points of a man's character, as it pertains to his relations to his fellows, but it also affords him the best opportunity for correcting these faults. Justice toward opponents and the essential conditions of effective coöperative activity—fair play and a strict adherence to the laws of the game, both receive clear and forcible demonstration in football.

It has been called a "fighting game," "a prize-fight multiplied by eleven;" but even this is claimed to be one of its merits. President Hall of Clark University has said: "An able-bodied young man who cannot fight physically can hardly have a high and true sense of honor, and is generally a milk-sop, a lady-boy, or a sneak. He lacks virility, his masculinity does not ring true, his honesty cannot be sound to the core. Hence, instead of eradicating this instinct, one of the great problems of physical and moral pedagogy is rightly to temper and direct it."

However, a great deal of opposition to football as it is played in America has arisen because of this element of

"brutality" and the danger inherent in it. These charges have become so serious that the game has been materially changed with a view of making these things less likely to happen. A more serious charge, however, has now appeared; namely, that, even under ideal conditions, the game violates too many of the essential principles of true sport to be of high value. In the first place, the whole scheme of the game, schedule, trips, and rules, is contrary to the genius of true sport. Practice for the game is hard grilling work and, combined with the fear-ridden anxiety of the players lest they show weakness or error in their plays, makes it entirely devoid of all real recreation or diversion for them. Again, football takes too much time and interferes too seriously with the primary business of the college, which is to develop mind and character. Any recreation that does not contribute to these ends should be debarred; and football, as it is now played, does not fit men for study but too often becomes an end in itself which, at least temporarily, makes study impossible. The coaches who train the men for the game are not interested in promoting the physical welfare of the men so much as they are in preparing a team which through brute strength, strategy, and alertness in taking advantage of the errors of opponents, may win the game.

Disadvantages

Athletics as a Social and Moral Agency.—But Dr. Gulick claims that intercollegiate contests cannot stand or fall on any of these grounds, because they are creating and expressing ideals that are higher than these things. "This game of footbal' in particular, and intercollegiate sport in general, cannot stand or fall because of the number of knees sprained, or the number of hearts dilated, or even of the number of lives lost; because lives are lost in a far larger way and with far more direful results through social and moral demoralization than through the physical injury of a comparatively few men. The question must turn upon the effects of this playing upon the moral character of the general student body and the

spectators. Every player on the field may come off unscathed physically, yet the game may have been a catastrophe of the most serious proportions if it has set up dishonor for approbation."

From this standpoint atheletics become an important agency in developing social and moral qualities, and intercollegiate athletics a desirable means of inculcating "corporate sensitiveness and genuine institutional honor." There are few forces that can act so readily and so forcibly in the making of moral fiber as the former, and few that can do so much toward building up both individual and corporate honesty as the latter. Athletics are important in an institution not so much as athletics but because of their social effects in welding, into one, faculty and student body, as nothing else could do.

Social and Moral Benefits

As Dr. Gulick says in the August issue of *Lippincott's Magazine*, "The value of organized athletics does not consist alone in the physical development which they promote; even the conventional championship sports, in their stimulation of school loyalty, exercise an influence upon the whole pupil body that is more worth while than the benefits obtained by those who actually enter the competitions. In an institution where the athletic spirit is strong, school spirit is strong and school work is likely to be of a high quality."

They also develop the morality that keeps us in just and sympathetic touch with others. They strongly grip the imagination and the emotions and teach valuable lessons of life in a way that cannot be learned from books and lectures. Dishonest play, professionalism, victory at any cost—all these still exist; but the instrument through which these manifest themselves must not be discredited and abandoned because it brings them to the surface, for it is also one of the most effective means of correcting them. The advisable amount of athletic work and the modifications in athletic contests necessary to eliminate objectionable features are matters that can be adjusted.

That everything possible should be done to make public athletic contests express the highest ideals of play is evident; for the contestants are depicting ethical and social standards that mould public opinion as well as reveal what the public conscience approves.

Regulated Play

Doctor Koch in his "Education for Courage" ("Die Erziehung zum Müte") emphasizes the fact that all forms of exercise affect the motor areas of the brain, and he then proceeds to show how the development of these motor areas affects the will. For example: Perseverance is needed for mastery, and mastery is very largely dependent on well-developed and enduring activity; firmness is necessary if we would overcome difficulty and be steadfast in our position, and this is closely allied with sturdy motor centers; deliberation and reflection avoid much error and help to right solutions, and these are qualities that can be secured only through good motor poise; self-control is essential if we would control our conditions, and self-control is gained only by means of exercising well-coördinated, well-controlled motor activities. Therefore, the *willing* to do is vitally connected with the implements of the doing.

The brain-centers of physical activity are closely joined by association fibers with the various psychic areas, in fact, in some cases are identical with them. Hence, there are mental and moral effects that need careful guarding in these recreational pursuits. Harm comes from allowing slipshod, careless, dragging execution of physical activities, whether they be of work or of play, just as there is danger of wrongly exercising or of choosing injurious exercises by the immature or the uninformed. Children are also under the constant temptation of playing too long or too violently, as has so often been demonstrated in rope-jumping contests and by the serious injuries resulting from reckless playing. They are also given to the

habit of jumping from one kind of play to another, to the detriment of skill and the power of winning success. Hence a competent person to serve as a guide in the play activities is of great service. Not only can he ward off many mistakes in play but, if he is in intelligent sympathy with young people, he can also add a great deal to the real enjoyment of play. Man has fought his way up from savagery, and the struggle that has been necessary in order to secure food and mates has developed within him a love for "conflict-situations" that, without intelligent guidance, often develops into quarreling among young people. The great socializing value of play is thus interfered with. While types of play devoid of all conflict-situations would become insipid and go down, it is desirable to cultivate only the social feelings in play and thereby to atrophy the anti-social feelings that manifest themselves in selfishness, quarrelsomeness, roughness, and unfairness.

Need of Supervisor

The influence of such a leader and umpire of disputes can become almost unbounded. When he is also the teacher of the playing group, questions of discipline or of study and work rarely arise. Play under such sympathetic conditions flows as naturally into work as the joy of the free effort of the one merges into the joy of the formal effort of the other.

There is another great service that the physical director can render. He can instruct and exercise a helpful influence in matters of personal hygiene. While many of the principles involved in this instruction must necessarily be general, care and competent advice may be given by him in regard to individual matters. Our teaching of hygiene amounts to little if we cannot get it imbedded in the life as hygienic habit. If even a few of these habits, such as correct standing, sitting, and breathing, proper care of the skin, and wise practices in regard to sleep, are emphasized by the director of their sports, the boys and girls will not so soon leave them out of their lives. If to these can be added interest in out-of-door sports or exer-

cises, success and happiness for our young people will be placed on a surer footing. For there is nothing more certain than that bone, muscle and nerve cells show throughout life the effects of the habits formed in these early days.

Coöperative Play.—But the highest service the physical director can render will always be his leadership and influence in coöperative games and recreations. One of the strongest justifications for providing playgrounds and amusement centers at public expense lies in the possibilities they open up for the coöperative play that trains away from the selfish individualistic spirit which is the source of so much social unrest. Attractive recreation places furnish one of the best means for fostering the social mingling of the people. The parks and walks and easily reached country places, the open-air dining places and concerts, and the cheap and ready transportation to be seen almost everywhere in European countries furnish intense satisfaction to the social economist; for he sees in them a tendency that is not only helpful to the individual but which is also, at the same time, fostering a more sympathetic understanding between the classes and the masses. It seems strange that in democratic America these opportunities were so long neglected or that, where they were developed, our parks and other nature opportunities were improved as driving and eating places for the few rather than as recreation places for the many. Hence, this more recent and more hopeful tendency in our country to make provision for the play of all of our boys and girls and to place the opportunities of wholesome recreation before all of our youths and before every adult, regardless of artificial social standards, furnishes one of the best outlooks for our industrial and social democracy. And such opportunities can be placed under their most favorable socializing conditions only when they are directed and encouraged by the most expert control that is available.

The value of coöperative games is especially great during the period of adolescence. Somehow youth finds itself

loath to open expression of its feelings and desires. This makes the tendency in youth toward secret expression of impulse and desire very great. It is the time above all others when interest and help need to be extended in an appreciative and sympathetic way, so that energy and desire may be guided into right channels and open expression may draw off all desire for secret expression. Nothing serves this purpose quite so well as organized play—the kind of play in which the social instincts have full opportunity for satisfaction through a developing spirit of team work and coöperative effort. But it is just as important to remember that a youth needs to be guided toward success in his games, as well as toward effort in them and that, in a judicious way, we make him realize that we believe in him and in his growing powers. The mother-love which expresses its confidence as the hand is laid upon the shoulder of her boy, or which breathes out in every act "I believe in you and feel sure that you will make good," is one of the greatest factors in human salvation and power. And when this influence is strengthened by the intelligent and sympathetic guidance of leader, teacher, or friend, its power for good is rendered all the more helpful and impressive.

Coöperative Games

The organized play activities of pupils may be utilized for the purpose of securing better study-effort and higher moral standards. The prestige of the semi-truant and the indifferent pupils, who sometimes rank high on the athletic field, may be lowered by insisting that only those who have deserved a place by attendance and work shall take part in the athletic contests of the schools. These results may be furthered through the efforts of organizations whose main purpose is to promote recreational opportunities and to make sure that they are enjoyed by the greatest possible number. Many cities now have such organizations. There is one in New York which is demonstrating in a very practical way how it is possible to arouse great interest in organized play and in providing play facilities

under the formidable obstacles of lack of space and the prohibitive price of land. Doctor Gulick in the August number of *Lippincott's Magazine* says of this new development: "While it is true that most cities need larger areas for play—the endeavor to produce them should not be slackened—the greater need is to discover what it is possible to do in the free spaces that are available and under the conditions that exist. The successful way in which classrooms, basements, roofs, and the street are utilized in the badge and class athletics demonstrates that the solution of the athletic problem is not so wholly dependent upon the possession of the large playgrounds or extensive athletic fields as has usually been supposed." The wisdom of these words is confirmed by the well-known fact in all practical education; namely, that meager opportunity well used assures success where abundant opportunity poorly used means failure.

Utilizing Existing Means

The Dramatic Instinct

The play of the American child is excellent for free movement and trains well to quickness of response, energetic effort, and skill. It also develops a strong sense of the value of organized and concentrated action. But, as compared with the way the European child amuses itself, there has been a marked absence in American play of imaginative activity. This play of the imagination can take the form of putting meaning into the past, of interpreting the present, or of forecasting the future. Münsterberg refers to the last two points by saying that there has been too little effort to imitate in a playing way the life of the surroundings and to project the hopes and wishes into the youthful intercourse. "Imagination, emotion, and the æsthetic sense need no less training than the intellect and action, and well-guided play is an exceptionally good medium for imparting these highly desirable qualities." Music and dancing have been the two forms under which such instincts and feelings have been expressing them-

selves, especially for young people. Recently, however, a development has begun that promises to supply in a most picturesque way this lacking quality in American play. This is the satisfying of the dramatic instincts of the child through the pageant. Pageantry, especially when it takes the historical or interpretive form, can be made to appeal to the child's grace of movement, to its imagination and memory, to its patriotism, and to many other forms of expressing bodily movement, intelligence, and feeling.

The Pageant

Interest is easily aroused and held because the activities of the child in the pageant can take on all forms of imitation and mimicry, the rhythm of movement of which it is naturally fond, and the desire for expression that is constantly so urgent in its nature. Much splendor of effect can also be obtained in the pageant; and this is not only satisfying to youthful instincts but can also be made an impressive influence for the cultivation of the æsthetic sense. The Fourth of July and other national holidays get a new and truer meaning for both the young and the old when interpreted in this way. And, through the interpretive power of the pageant, poetry and the drama can be made to bring messages to the masses as never before.

Miss Myra Emmons, in *The Outlook* for July, describes with interesting detail the benefits of a pageant recently given in a natural amphitheatre of green sward in Prospect Park, Brooklyn. She says that during several weeks of rehearsal for this pageant, "The Pageant of Patriotism," it was quite noticeable that children kept away from the streets that are so full of danger and undesirable sights, that the tendency to quarrel among themselves did not manifest itself, and that during the practice they refrained from the idle and useless exhibitions of youthful activity that so often accompany uninteresting work. Punctuality and attention during the rehearsals was demanded and easily secured even though the large list of perform-

ers was made up of children of all nationalities, and who came from homes of various stages of social standing and intelligence. It was particularly noticeable that children who worked for their living were among the most interested, punctual, and diligent. Several "gangs" of boys at first were inclined to be troublesome, but soon not only manifested an intelligent and obedient interest themselves but also most effectively assisted in arousing these desirable manifestations in younger urchins. Although the pageant as given was the product of the conglomerate life of Brooklyn, the amount and character of the native intelligence and ability were marked and abundant. In fact, one of the best results of well-directed play is always the calling forth of these qualities, together with often unexpected natural ability for leadership.

Play in Rural Districts

But there is also need of organized play in rural districts. Many of our most helpful educational movements center in the city. This is assuredly not because they are not suitable for the rural and semi-rural places, are not needed there, or that rural districts do not deserve the serious consideration to which the cities are entitled. As a matter of fact, nothing is of greater importance to a nation than a properly developed, well contented rural population. And one of the best means for securing this is to make ample and wise provisions for the recreations that will tend to remove the dullness and unattractive features of rural conditions. Organized play is needed for country children, especially for adolescents, because it makes both for contentment and community spirit. They are apt to be too much to themselves; naturally they do not coöperate well because their lonely life tends to make them individualistic. Then, too, they need organized play because they are apt to be making physical mistakes and do not have the harmoniously developed bodies to which they are entitled.

Country boys and girls as a rule know surprisingly few games and such as they have are not calculated to teach the benefits of coöperative effort. This permits the boy to grow up with little training except for individual effort—a distinct social loss to him and to his fellows. Besides, with the exception of a few places where special efforts to establish playgrounds and recreative activities have been made, many country youths get too little time for play even though their need for it is great. Teachers in country schools too often do not know how to organize games nor how or what to do to induce their pupils to wholesome play. Parents and school boards in these districts often do not realize the need and value of play and, hence, are out of sympathy with any effort to provide for it.

Country Children and Play

Few things would be more effective in helping to check the much complained-of exodus from the farm than adequate opportunity both in time and provision for play and recreation. The play-festivals that are now becoming common in places in the Middle West are red-letter days in the lives of young and old. That they furnish a great center of common interest, check restlessness, quiet discontent, and promote good will and intelligence have been amply demonstrated. The social influence alone of the festival, and all that leads up to it and follows in its wake, is well worth while, for it means greater efficiency as well as greater content. It is almost an irresistible force in leading away from egoistic individual effort toward altruistic coöperative effort.

Improvements in farming conditions are increasing the leisure of the farmer and emphasizing the need of wholesome recreation for old and young in his family. And this is true not only for the male members of his family but also for the female members, upon whom falls almost continuous service with a minimum of relief from its monotony. The recreation provided must be broadly educative as well as strong in its appeal to the play in-

stincts of life. This is necessary if farm-life is to be raised to the intellectual and social level of the town-life toward which so many people on the farm have been looking with longing eyes. And whatever recreation is provided must, for this very reason, be in no sense dominated by the town or by town ideals. It must be for rural people and have for its aim the appreciation and uplifting of rural life.

Rural Recreation Centers

Doctor Bailey of Cornell University, in a recent address, said that he hoped the time is not far distant when every farming community will have an assembly hall in a convenient grove, this grove to be properly fitted up with picnic tables, speaking stands, an athletic field and a playground. He thinks picnics should be encouraged, also field days, harvest homes, old home weeks, church festivals, and fairs. Fairs he would have of the old-fashioned sort which were better calculated to provide a spirit of emulation, as well as an opportunity for instruction, than the professional racing and demoralizing side shows of so many of the modern fairs.

Both the country school and the country church can serve as centers for proper recreative influences, as both hold a unique position in rural society. There is unquestionably a great deal of musical and dramatic talent that can and should be searched out in the rural communities, and the school and the church are in a position to do this if they are working along modern lines. Doctor Bailey, in his address, spoke of a group of farmers in the corn-belt of the West who expressed complete satisfaction with their lot because by the time they were fifty years of age they expected to be able to retire and go to a town or city to live. If such ideals are not replaced it will be impossible to develop an abiding love for rural life or any high social development on the farm. The great recreation movement that is sweeping over the country seems to offer the best solution of the problem.

Rest and Re-creation

But the necessity for play and recreation is better understood than the necessity for rest and re-creation. Many play to the point of exhaustion, or choose forms of recreation that are too exciting and stimulating, or that partake too nearly of the nature of their daily activities to be helpful. Much of the nervousness and lack of poise of which Americans are justly accused is not so much due to the lack of recreation as it is to the forms and hours of recreation. Many of us almost utterly disregard the uplifting power of restful ease and of the more quiet and less exciting enjoyment of our leisure hours. One of the best features of Greek education was the provision it made for fitting its future citizens to secure profit in a restful way from the hours of freedom from toil. Herbert Spencer gave a prominent place in his great work on education to training for the proper use of leisure. That we have not yet learned these lessons is very evident and that we shall be compelled to do so to conserve our national vitality is equally clear. A few decades ago Americans lived mainly on farms or in villages. Although their hours of toil were long, they were in the open, and free from the drive of modern industry. Now the great masses of our people live in cities and, even with shorter hours of labor, are subject to all of the tension and distraction of severe competition and the urgency of urban life.

Overstimulation

Our climate subjects us to the stimulation of sudden and violent changes; our natural resources offer great inducements to efforts; social conditions and social opportunities with us lack the restful stability of older countries—as a people we live in an environment that is constantly tempting us to exhausting effort. This being true, the necessity for restoring the equanimity of severely taxed nerves and of building up reserve power through repose is an imperative need. We cannot without serious deterioration of power continually

live up to the utmost limit of our ability to work or even to enjoy. The ill effects of such living are especially noticeable in adult life and the later years of youth. So many of the causes of nervous breakdown that occur in early manhood, and especially in early womanhood, can be directly traced to the disregard of badly needed rest and repose, to late and irregular hours, and to bad habits of work and recreation, that we are beginning to question whether it is not the quality of our work and recreation rather than the amount of time devoted to each that is really at fault. Life is often made so intense that the mere worry of meeting assumed obligations undermines the sources of nervous force. The person who assumes a half dozen tasks or engagements when it is possible to do only one well is in more serious danger from overwrought than from overworked nerves. And no people can long continue to act in a sane and forceful way unless wise and well-used recuperative means are common in its midst.

Physical Need of Rest.—Activity that is too intense, or too long continued, or too uneconomically used breaks down the cellular tissue more rapidly than it can be replaced. It also so lowers the recuperative power of the cells that more waste is produced than can be eliminated from the body. As a result the person suffers from the toxic poisons of fatigue. The power of the cells to resist fatigue can be greatly extended by a wise combination of periods of rest and re-creation with periods of activity. And activities that are under the control of the will may be performed in a way that is economical of cellular tissue. But neither of these desirable ends can be attained in a life that is wasteful in the living. Americans are often accused of using more nervous force than is necessary to perform their tasks well. This is largely a question of physical poise. But it is also a question of our attitude toward our work. Work that affords pleasure to the individual is more economical in its use of cellular tissue than work that is distasteful. Hence, pleasure in the work or

in the activity also assists in deferring the period of fatigue. But in no case can an individual, no matter what the stage of the development of the cells of his body or how absorbing the interest in his activities, with impunity use up his cell substance more rapidly than it is built up or more rapidly than the waste can be removed from the body. Good health and the ability to enjoy life depend upon maintaining the proper relation of activity and elimination to repair and reinvigoration.

Mental Need of Rest.—The periods for concentrated mental activity should be short. If effective work is to be accomplished they must also be well interspersed with periods of recuperative gain. Our great thinkers and men of large responsibility spend comparatively few hours at their desks. The remainder of the day is given over to the kind of ingathering of nervous force that makes the short hours of formal work fruitful in sane and progressive thought. If an attempt is made to eliminate these periods of upbuilding rest, the mind is merely exhausted without a corresponding increase of good results. The laws of nature are firm and will not long brook any infringement. "The over-trained athlete becomes stale; the over-worked brain-worker becomes nervous; the over-worked laborer becomes indifferent and generally inefficient." It has time and again been made evident to the employers of labor that rest and relaxation are essential to great efficiency and that their employees will accomplish as much in six days of the week as they will by working also on the Seventh. And the teacher well knows the futility of endeavoring to get satisfactory mental response from tired brains.

The state of relaxation that should characterize all rest and recreation enables the mind to bring back all of its wandering forces and to marshal them once again for effective work. The habit of so marshalling the mental forces gives a feeling of control and assurance that diminishes the probability of failure in the presence of an impor-

tant task. The value of good habits of rest and relaxation, for keeping the brain in control of all of its functions, has long been known in the teaching and performing of acts of skill and in the treatment of mental disease.

In all kinds of intellectual labor worry exhausts far more than the work itself. Anxiety as to results and over-anxiety as to conditions are always detrimental to efficiency. Hence, the wise business man leaves his business behind when he turns his face toward home, and the teacher, who would conserve her power, daily closes the door on all her bad-boy thoughts when the time arrives for rest and recreation. It is only in this way that she can master both the bad boy and his thoughts on the morrow. Mental relaxation, of course, never means mental indifference. With mental indifference there can never be true rest and recreation; for there has never been the continued and concentrated effort that makes the enjoyment of these grateful periods possible. Neither play nor rest is ever so fully enjoyed as after something has been accomplished, something done that has earned the relaxing and the rest.

Emotional Need of Rest.—After all, we are under the control of our emotions. And it is only through such activities as leave no sting of regret that we can have satisfying emotions. The person who has no other interest in life but the seeking of pleasure soon gets but little satisfaction from play. The man who has no other interest in life but the seeking of wealth or position eventually and surely finds the emptiness of both. It is only as interest in both play and work are wisely blended that the emotional life can be kept buoyant and satisfying. While, for the little child, free play is absolutely needed, those who are older can get much satisfactory recreation in activities that are not too closely allied to the regular work. Upon entering business or taking up a profession, every one should select an activity or line of endeavor that is different from his life occupation and which is of

sufficient interest to him to make him forget his business and his profession during the recreative hours set apart from his daily tasks. It must be something which appeals to him, that is free from the restraint of compelling duty, and that does not entirely supplant free pleasure in the open.

Need of an Avocation

It is important to remember that such interests cannot be suddenly acquired. Walter D. Scott in the July issue of *Everybody's Magazine* says: "Many a man who has reached the years of maturity has found to his sorrow that he is without interests in the world except his specialty or his business. With each new year he finds new interests more difficult to acquire. Hence young men should in their youth choose wisely some interest to which they may devote themselves with perfect abandon at more or less regular intervals throughout life." And the president of Brown University, in a recent address to some 1600 high-school boys, warned them against considering the accumulation of wealth as the main object of life. He cited in support of his warning a conversation with a man known from one end of the country to the other who, on one occasion, gloomily said to him: "I consider my life a failure." And when Doctor Faunce reminded him of his great and well-known business success, the man replied that he had been giving his time so exclusively to money-making that he had lost his appreciation for the better things of life. He said he could not read a book with interest; he could not listen to music in patience; he could not get refreshment out of travel nor receive pleasure from a picture. And this is probably true of many another man who has become too completely absorbed in the mad rush of our modern life. Without pleasurable emotions for both work and play, life soon ceases to be worth while.

Sleep.—This is the climax of all the re-creative acts. Neither young nor old can long ignore the need of restful sleep. During the waking hours there is a gradual loss

of vigor because the amount of nutrition, renewal, and elimination cannot quite keep pace with the loss occurring through the expenditure of energy. The processes of nutrition and growth are also more or less impaired by the activities of the waking hours and, if sleep is through any cause seriously interfered with, there is a rapid loss of the cell plasticity that is a favorable condition not only for growth but also for vigorous activity and general good health. Hence, sleep, which is a complete suspension of voluntary activity, is needed for the restoration of the bodily losses of the day, as well as for the favorable conditions it produces for the processes of elimination and growth.

But sleep is not only a general need of the body; it is also a specific and imperative need for the conscious life. Nothing is more exhausting than conscious effort. In animals endowed with consciousness, even under the most favorable conditions for economy of effort, it is so often put into action during the waking hours that a complete suspension of all conscious effort is essential for a restoration of its depleted energy and control. Newman points out that sleep is less necessary to an animal the more the spinal cord predominates over the brain, and reflex movements over conscious and voluntary movements. Which indicates that young people need more sleep than older people, in whom many of the earlier conscious activities have through habit been relegated to reflex or sub-conscious control. In fact Marie de Manaceine in her work on "Sleep" indicates clearly, through a series of experiments that she conducted, that there is serious danger to young animals in interfering with their normal amount of sleep. "Direct experiment has shown that animals entirely deprived of food for twenty days, and which then have lost more than half their weight, may yet escape death if fed with precaution. On the other hand, I have found by experimenting on ten puppies that the complete deprivation of sleep for

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four or five days (96 to 120 hours) causes irreparable lesions in the organism, and in spite of every care the subjects of these experiments could not be saved. Complete absence of sleep during this period is fatal to puppies in spite of the food taken during this time, and the younger the puppy the more quickly he succumbed."

While there is less immediate danger to those who are more mature in bodily and mental development, it is well known that loss of sleep, or conditions unfavorable to healthy sleep, tend to a loss of the power of voluntary control, to slower mental reactions, to defective memory, and to hallucinations and other abnormal conditions of the emotional life as well as to a general impairment of the bodily functions. Insomnia is one of the most dreaded of all diseases not so much, possibly, because of any acute or alarming conditions which it at first presents, but because of the gloom it casts over the entire life and the way in which it interferes with energetic, inspiring effort. Sleeplessness, with all of its train of disorders that interfere with the judgment and an efficient will, is greatly on the increase in America, and if, as a people, we are to maintain the important place in the world's activities to which our natural resources and our natural ability entitle us, we shall have to give more care to the conditions favorable to a proper amount of restful sleep.

Insomnia may be caused by hidden disease which only the skilled physician can detect, but in its earlier stages it is more apt to be due to such unfavorable conditions as irregular hours, lack of proper nourishment or of sufficient clothing, the presence of the toxins of fatigue arising from excessive physical or mental exertion, or some of the many exciting influences that are carried far into the time of rest. The most pregnant influence, however, is the tendency to carry the worries of business, professional or public life into the sleeping chamber. The ill effects of such unfavorable conditions are especially marked in persons with poorly balanced nervous systems or in whom the

vasomotor apparatus is extremely irritable. Anxiety, especially if it is due to a seemingly hopeless outlook for the future or to the presence in the life of the effects of hidden evil, is a particularly fruitful source of insomnia.

Theories of Sleep

The various theories of the causes of sleep indicate in a general way some of the conditions favorable to inducing it. Three of these are: (*a*) The chemical theory, which holds that it is induced by an accumulation of the waste products of fatigue; (*b*) the vasomotor theory, which says that it is due to a diminution of the blood-supply of the brain, owing to a gradual loss of tone in the vasomotor center during the busy waking hours and the fall of general arterial pressure produced thereby; and (*c*) such psycho-physiological theories as are based on the idea that sleep is a general resting time for consciousness. The conscious life requires the greatest effort of the organism and needs for its activities such an expenditure of physical energy as exhausts the supply, and, therefore, all physical and psychical processes fall below the threshold of consciousness just as soon as there is a voluntary withdrawal of sensory and mental stimuli in the preparation for sleep.

The first of these theories indicates that there is a close connection between the toxins of fatigue and the conditions favorable to sleep. The second also emphasizes the value of exercise, both bodily and mental, but lays special stress upon the value of exercise that affects the vasomotor system. The third lays emphasis upon the important relation that conscious life bears to sleep. Continued excesses or unwholesome activity along any of these lines will inevitably produce morbid conditions in regard to sleep. But ill effects may also arise from too great an amount of sleep. There must be a sufficient amount of exercise in the conscious life to make the body and mind both ready for sleep. Those who have reached middle life, the age at which the conscious life and the mental and bodily powers are at the zenith of development, need

less sleep than the child. While the amount will also vary somewhat with the temperament of the person, we shall probably not find a better rule to cover both sleep and the activities of the day than that given by Dr. Binns in his interesting old book on The Anatomy of Sleep. Here he says his model man Alfred divided the twenty-four hours of the day into "eight hours for rest, eight hours for labor, and eight hours for amusement."

A third of the day devoted to energetic, purposeful, devoted effort; a third for recreative work and play; and a third given over to re-creative sleep would not be an easy program to follow under modern conditions. But with a wise interrelating of the influence of work, recreation, and sleep, and with an atmosphere of cheeriness and hope surrounding all no matter what the conditions of life, such a program would unquestionably furnish a worthy ideal toward which to approximate. It would, at least, serve as a desirable standard; and too many lives in these days are lacking in such standards, both as a matter of ideal and as a matter of practice. Time and opportunity for health, success, and happiness are too vitally important to be endangered by such lack of purpose and plan.

CHAPTER II

DEFECTIVES AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION

As the condition known as mental dullness, backwardness, arrested development, or feeblemindedness is usually sufficiently developed in the early school life to be capable of definite diagnosis, at least by experts, Dr. McKenzie, in his book on Exercise in Education and Medicine, rightly maintains that here is a field in which physical education, including all forms of play and recreation, should be capable of its most beneficial results. These earlier school days, when the muscles and nerves are in their most plastic condition, furnish the most favorable time for taking the first steps for correcting mental sluggishness and for training in the most promising way the neuro-muscular system of these atypical children.

There are certain characteristics of a child's emotional life that need to be borne in mind in any attempt to discover whether or not it is mentally deficient.

Child Characteristics

In the first place, although the feeling life of the normal child lacks steadiness and is subject to rapid changes of a more or less haphazard character, at the same time its emotions are open to the control of its attention and will. In the second place, although its feelings are egoistic and restricted to only a narrow range, although they are largely instinctive reactions that are inborn in the nervous system itself and which always tend to respond to immediate excitement rather than to remote ends, yet we can with assurance proceed to get the normal child to reject the immediate and egoistic and to respond to the more remote and altruistic. Thirdly, the period of involuntary attention and practically involuntary expression of the normal child is rapidly modified under wise educative influences into more nearly volun-

tary effort. And, in the fourth place, any child always acts in a way which indicates that it is largely under the influence of imitation and suggestion.

Then, too, we must learn to discriminate between the child who is backward in his work because of such physical defects as deafness, defective eyesight, and adenoid growths and the child who is mentally deficient. Backward children are always much older and bigger than the other pupils in their classes and usually remain two or three years in one grade. Mental dullness may be due to physical weakness following severe illness or to the fact that some children develop slowly at certain stages, especially at the period of puberty when the body is apt to develop at the expense of the mental power. Any child who does not seem to profit by the instruction that evidently is effective with the remainder of the class, should be carefully observed and thoroughly examined by the medical inspector of the school or by an expert on mental diseases.

Mental Defectives

But the symptoms of mental deficiency are characteristic and in most cases comparatively easy of detection. Such children are relatively easily fatigued by mental effort, and they lose their interest quickly and with little regard to the natural appeal of what is before them. They are not observant, are not able to discriminate quickly and accurately color, form or size. They may be either abnormally inactive and listless or unnaturally excitable. They are often disobedient and willful and are liable to frequent attacks of stubbornness and bad temper without any apparent cause. Fernold adds that they are usually untidy in their appearance and in their personal habits, awkward in their gait, movement, and attitude. In grasping they are either feeble or they may clutch the object as if they are unable to let it go. Incoördination is plainly shown in their drawing and writing, in their lack of skill and dexterity in the simplest forms of gymnastic exercises, and in

their general lack of initiative and spontaneity. They do not show the strength, vigor, alertness, and courage of normal children. In addition to these things there remains also the general fact that the mentally deficient are always far more immature in their thought and acts than their age would warrant. In fact even under the wisest treatment, many of them never pass beyond the stages of development that are natural to a child.

Mental Deficiency and Physical Conditions

A study of these characteristics reveals how largely mental deficiency is due to physical conditions and also, at once, suggests some of the means that should be adopted to bring about nerve and muscle conditions that are more favorable to mental development. The same general law in regard to the scope and intensity and length of effort applies to mental development as to physical. At first, the weak and immature body is not capable of skillful, prolonged, or intense effort. But, with proper nutriment and judicious exercise in a favorable environment, the body increases in power and this power shows itself particularly in the intensity and length of time that it is able to manifest itself. But with this gain of power also comes or should come celerity and adaptability—work should be accomplished promptly, with greater speed and with the possibility of turning the physical energies under development more readily to a variety of uses. And these are the elements that are desirable in all mental growth. Strength of intellect, intensity of thought and application, ability for sustained effort, adaptability of mind—these are proofs of growth in mental power. And these come through proper mental nourishment, through judicious exercises for the mind, and through an environment that presents only the conditions which are favorable to healthy mental growth.

In his "Physiology of Bodily Exercise, Lagrange gives an account of the experiments of the Italian physiologist, Mosso, which showed so conclusively that in all mental

effort there is an increase of the blood supply sent to the brain, and that the intensity of the effort determines the amount so sent. "The blood flows in more abundance through the cerebral vessels by the very fact of the mental effort." The weak and imperfect mentality of these young defectives indicates clearly the impoverished condition of their brains. And one of the first problems in their education is to arouse and hold their interest long enough to secure a mental effort that will send additional nutriment to the brain. With them it is not so much abnormal activity as it is weak and undeveloped activity. We sometimes forget in regard to the mysterious thing known as nervous force that the stimuli of our sensations and feelings cannot at the time supply nervous force but merely determine the manner and place of its discharge. But these sensations and feelings, if accompanied by mental effort, will tend to increase power because the mental effort will increase nervous force through the increase of the blood supply in the brain.

Methods.—Our problem then is one of stimulating mentality through appeals which, because they demand mental effort, tend to send more nourishment to the brain. The following general practices should be followed in dealing with defective children:

1. They should be segregated both because they serve as a drag upon the other children and because they need far more individual attention than can be given them in the regular classes. If the mental deficiency is great they should be placed in special institutions thoroughly equipped to give them better attention than they can receive in the home and in the school.

2. Their physical condition should be kept as favorable as possible by nourishing food, regular outdoor exercise, bathing, ample sleep, and careful attention to all of their bodily functions and habits. Dr. McKenzie says that the mental awakening resulting from an improved state of nutrition and bodily vigor alone is often very striking.

3. The education of the special senses and the training of the voluntary muscles to prompt and accurate response must lie at the foundation of all efforts at purely intellectual training. Appealing exercises, that begin with the games and occupations of normal childhood, should be used as a basis for stimulating muscle growth and for disciplining the voluntary muscles into ready coördinations. Music and rhythmic marching are usually found to be preferable to formal gymnastics at first because the latter involve a greater accuracy and promptness of motor response and a closer and more continued attention than such children are capable of giving.

4. The training for the finer coördinations of hand and arm can best be secured through kindergarten methods and by such manual occupations as weaving, basketry, Sloyd and, in the case of the more advanced pupils, through the simpler forms of specific vocational work. At an early age much of this neuro-muscular training "may be directed to the various handicrafts and simple manual labor which will enable many of these children, especially in institutions, to become self-supporting in after life, who would otherwise become a burden on the community."

5. There is an important phase of pleasure and pain that must not be lost sight of in the instruction of mental defectives. It is the influence of the feelings upon the readiness of grasping and acting upon ideas. This is doubly important in the case of defectives because of their tendency to depression and lack of serious effort. In so far as feelings influence or move the mental or motor impulses they are termed emotions. And the influence of emotions upon the ready association of ideas depends almost entirely upon their tone. The law which applies here may be formulated as follows: Emotions that are chiefly pleasurable accelerate the association of ideas, while emotions that are chiefly unpleasant retard it. And, in the same way, depressive emotions lead but slowly to

action while the brighter and more hopeful emotions tend toward quick and abundant activity.

Under such general training as is here indicated some defectives develop a fair degree of mentality—others never pass beyond the stages of the development of childhood, but all are benefited. Limits of Results Fernold, however, claims that, if the degree of deficiency is extreme and the condition is congenital or the result of disease or injury, the brain abnormalities will make the condition permanent, as "no really feeble-minded person has or can be entirely cured." Few defectives possess all of the instincts or "hungers" possessed by the normal child, and still less can these hungers be made the means of a full measure of development. Of the hungers of the normal child—the hunger for exercise, for social appreciation, for imitation, for sensation and the organization of sensations, for competition and coöperation, for intellectual activity, for companionship—it is an exceedingly low degree of defective who does not manifest several of these instincts and thereby make some education possible. This is especially true in regard to the hunger for exercise, imitation, and companionship as they manifest themselves in play.

Value of Play in the Training of Mental Defectives.—The pleasurable sensations that accompany the satisfying of the play hunger make of play a natural and valuable method of approach for the developing of mental effort. Many forms of play also possess the rhythmic movements that are so appealing to the defective. Karl Bücher in his work on Rhythm calls attention to the fact that there is usually a more or less conscious mental effort to understand and apply means to the activity in hand. In play this conscious mental effort is greatly stimulated by the effort to find ways for improving the means of winning in the play. Play also furnishes a form of activity in which there is always a marked increase in the ability to continue at one type of activity. The

varying forms under which even its similar activities may occur make possible the use of new muscles and new forms of thought and therefore tend greatly to defer the point of fatigue. Bücher especially emphasizes the value of its rhythmic movements for deferring fatigue, owing to the pleasure inherent in rhythm. The mental effect of all forms of bodily exercise of a rhythmic character is a feeling of satisfaction and exhilaration. In rhythmic movement we secure the most joy from life with the least expenditure of effort. The mentally defective, for this reason, always enjoy dancing and also get the maximum of benefit from it with the minimum expenditure of voluntary effort.

The following will show how play and the various forms of physical training may be made to afford a remedy for the specific troubles manifested by the mentally defective:

Specific Methods

To correct the shambling walk, with dragging feet and slouching figure, which is so characteristic, such brisk exercises as running at command up and down hill, " tip-toe " walking contests, and the spring board to develop elasticity of step may be used. Stooping may be corrected by balancing a book or a basket on the head. Requiring the pupil to step between the rounds of a ladder placed horizontally on the floor, and stepping on bricks placed at regular intervals, are devices that assist in correcting a slouching gait. Military drill is regarded as of special value, because in it a boy learns a certain standard of precision, attention, and readiness of movement, the emulation of the drill being particularly stimulating to effort. Defective coördination, especially as it manifests itself in weakness or nervousness of grasp, may be helped greatly by such simple exercises as hanging by the hands, by climbing, and by catching and throwing balls. The exhilarating influence of active sports is a good antidote for the lethargy and timidity so characteristic of the feeble-minded. But in all of these efforts it is of the utmost importance that the teacher so frame the activities that

the pupil can succeed. Easy exercises and great encouragement are essential to success with such pupils.

Moral Defectives

But there is another class of defectives that is not so easy to deal with. These are the morally defective. So varied are the forms and conditions under which such defects manifest themselves that it is often exceedingly difficult to decide how much of it is due to physical conditions, what part to lack of training, and the extent to which a perverse nature or a lack of mental power are to blame. The youthful criminal is typical of the really morally defective and has been well described by Hamilton D. Wey of the State Penitentiary at Elmira, N. Y.:

"The average youthful criminal, as encountered in the prisons of the State, is an abnormal production, physically, mentally, and morally. Generally under weight, with repulsive features in some one or more lines, and asymmetric head; he is coarse in fiber and heavy in movements. His mind, while not diseased, is undeveloped, or it may be abnormally developed in certain directions, the smartness resulting therefrom partaking of low cunning and centering about self. He is deficient in stability and will power and incapable of prolonged mental effort and application. His intellect travels in a rut and fails him in an emergency. His moral nature shares in the imperfections of his physical and mental state. He does not possess the power to discriminate between right and wrong, or if so, it is in favor of himself and avails nothing to society. It is easier for him to incline to evil than to good, to the animal than to the intellectual, and in this he is true to himself. His is a perverted moral nature—a blunted mind and a crude body."

Youthful Criminals

Such defectives are abnormally excitable with an excitability that manifests itself in restlessness and a strong tendency to insubordination. They are obstinate and are given to the various crimes that accompany a blunted

intellect and an undeveloped or perverted moral nature. The moral defective "is vacillating, without fixed purpose or aim, incapable of pursuing a consistent plan, and of a rudimentary or atypical mental development." If such persons appear to be bright it is in a way more allied to animal cunning than to intellectual ability.

METHODS.—As such persons are very often poorly nourished, with muscles that are soft and flabby, and with bodies that are in a general anæmic condition from living in poverty and in the midst of unsanitary conditions, proper nourishment, healthful surroundings, and proper exercises and plays usually accomplish a great deal toward reforming their lives. Nourishing food and healthful exercise develop heart, lung, and brain power and improve the conditions of the badly nourished tissues. Plays and games stimulate the brain to greater activity and prepare it for the broader knowledge and skill that in appealing forms should accompany their training. Military drills and athletic contests will do much toward developing the alertness and prompt obedience to commands which are so lacking in these moral defectives. The athletic contests also assist in supplanting the selfish, individualistic spirit with a more wholesome, self-sacrificing immersion in the group. At the same time they make clear the necessity of obeying regulations that are made for the common good. Dr. McKenzie says that physical training has a marked effect on the physique, mentality and conduct of criminals even after they have attained full growth.

Miss O'Reilly, Prison Commissioner of Massachusetts, holds firmly to the idea that all women convicts are physically diseased and that this in a large measure accounts for their depravity. Hence, her first efforts are bent upon giving to them the physical care that will build up the tired body and correct the imperfect action of the heart caused by anæmia. She says: "Prolonged exertions, unsupported by adequate nourishment, alternated with spells of loafing, bring about a physical state that offers

no reaction against the temptation to infirmity. Given idleness, hunger, anxiety, the illy concealed criticism of the neighbors and the unendurable tension of nerve and muscle, and it is not long until we find the woman who comes before the court for offenses against her womanhood." Are there not some very suggestive truths here for those who have charge of the instruction of the so-called incorrigibles? The causes that bring these women to prison are seldom of personal or ever of direct moral significance. But ignorance, lack of training in useful occupations, immaturity, friendlessness and a general unguided condition have prepared the way. Idleness, lack of nourishment, overcrowding in tenements, nervous tension and a high-pressure life complete the work.

Playgrounds and Criminals

When it is remembered that the great majority of our so-called criminal class are youths under 21 years of age and that the magisterial and criminal courts deal with probably 100,000 of such lawless young citizens each year, the importance of making wise provision for a better outlet for youthful energies is readily seen. It seems quite clear that bad environment and the necessity of finding their own companions and their own sources of amusement are largely responsible for this sad condition. With parents who are employed all day, or who are ignorant and indifferent or even worse, the home can do little that is helpful for them. The poverty and neglect of the home drive them into the streets. Here they meet the unemployed and the vicious, and with their impoverished, immature bodies and minds are easily led into sin.

Judge Lindsay of Denver mentions as perhaps the saddest thing that occurs in his judicial experience the cursing of heartless parents that he has heard from the lips of neglected boys and girls who received their training in the streets. And certainly no good citizen can regard with indifference the great numbers of boys and girls in

our cities who are doomed to the degrading influences of the squalor and filth of the crowded tenements and whose playground is the narrow streets. Too often the school with its meager playground can in this respect offer but little relief. The uplifting influences of its few short hours are often more than offset by adverse conditions in the environment of the home; and the community and the State get but a poor return for their incomplete investment in that modern anomaly, a school without a playground.

The very sources of wealth that give to our American cities such a phenomenal growth and which lead them to erect magnificent public buildings and to open wide and beautiful boulevards, and that cause them to provide fire and police protection of which they are proud to boast, should also make them see the necessity of providing wisely and well for the proper development and protection of the boys and girls upon whom the future welfare of their cities must depend. For these young people, according to the predominating influences brought to bear upon their lives, may either grow up to enrich and guarantee the welfare of their cities or to swell the constantly increasing number of those who prey upon their own lives as well as upon the vitals of the community that does so little for them. There can no longer be any question that proper playgrounds and good teachers will do more to prevent crime than all of the policemen and courts and jails in existence, and will do it at far less expense and with an infinitely greater gain to the community. It does not yet seem quite clear to all of us that it costs far less to prevent crime than it does to punish it; and that this is true regardless of the cost of the uplifting influences that work so effectively in removing the temptation to crime. We are still only in the early stages of answering the age-old question, "Am I my brother's keeper?" We are still more interested in private gain and public display than we are in the physical, intellectual, and moral uplift of our more dependent fellow-men.

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PART II

CHAPTER III

DEVELOPMENTS DIRECTLY AFFECTING THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

Vocational Education

EDUCATION for life, especially in its specific form of preparing for a vocation, is, without doubt, the one thing that is most profoundly affecting the educational thought of the day. Courses of study, and even the methods of the classroom, are being modified to meet this new demand in the work of instruction. Although there are serious protests against a general introduction of vocational work into all grades and forms of school work, for the most part these protests are based on the fear that such instruction shall so dominate the work that all efforts at culture shall be relegated to the background. There seems little doubt, however, that careful consideration and sane practice will result in the kind of school work that will vitalize instruction through a closer correlation of the work with the needs and practices of every-day life, while at the same time illuminating it all with the higher and deeper things of the cultural life.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES.—No one who knows the industrial conditions in the United States can fail to see the importance of the widespread movement to provide vocational and technical education as part of the work of the public school. The passing away of the apprenticeship system has made it necessary for a would-be journeyman to center his efforts upon some

one of the detailed operations of his chosen occupation, thus narrowing his skill and the understanding of his work within a very restricted and monotonous channel; or he must learn the fundamentals of his trade in some form of school which prepares him to follow a trade or occupation and, with a minimum of practice in the shop and factory, to become a skilled journeyman. The latter is far better because of the broader outlook and the better grasp of the work that it affords. But even here there exists the danger of so emphasizing the industrial side of an education as to lose sight of the importance of preparing young people not only to do good work but also to make wise use of their leisure and their recreations—to embrace every opportunity to become good citizens and good men as well as to become efficient as producers and earners of wages. In other words, our system of general education cannot be made wholly utilitarian without sacrificing some of the essential things for which a system of general education in the State should stand.

While the ability to be an efficient wage-earner removes the danger of any one becoming a burden upon the State, that alone does not develop the intelligence, the integrity, the patriotic devotion to country and the recognition of social obligations that are so important to an individual as well as to his community and his State. This being the case, we shall probably learn, after a time, that we cannot secure as high a degree of technical efficiency in our school training as has been supplied by the intense but narrow methods of the shop and factory; but can make of each of our pupils a more adaptable, intelligent, and considerate human being, with the power of initiative and with a mental and physical alertness that should in the end be of the highest benefit to himself, to the industrial world, and to the State.

The blindness of holding to the idea that education must be made to pay in a mercantile way in later life, is becoming more evident. It is becoming clearer that it

must be made to pay in the way of assuring the larger successes of life rather than the smaller ones of mere money-making ability—the kind of success that comes from finding pleasure in work, the work that is our personal choice, the work which we are well qualified to do and to enjoy, and not the work from which we can make the most money. Work without pleasure in it, without personal choice, as Nietzsche has indicated, is the surest way to decadence.

Vocational Education in the United States is at present assuming the dual form of (1) Providing vocational instruction that will serve the purpose of bringing the pupil, before he reaches the age of 14, into more sympathetic, intelligent, and efficient relations to his occupational environment, while it also assists him in interpreting his own capabilities and inclinations for a life occupation, and (2) Giving, after the age of 14, the specific training necessary to fit him for his chosen occupation. For this later specific training we are at present going to industry for most of our information as to aims and methods. Opinion, however, is divided as to whether a desirable amount of culture may be gotten from courses correlated with the industrial work; or whether the culture and occupational work must follow largely separate courses, even though pursued at the same time. Commissioner Snedden of Massachusetts seems at present inclined to the latter view.

Dual Form of Vocational Education

It is important to note that European countries can furnish us but meager guidance on the first of these general purposes of vocational education, although it can furnish a great deal of information on the second or more specific training for occupational life. Aside from the excellent work accomplished by Doctor Kerschensteiner in the schools of Munich, vocational training in the schools of Europe is either confined to strictly industrial or agricultural lines, or is far more specifically vocational in its purpose than with us.

Shop Work.—Shop work for boys in the upper grammar grades, as in the manual training high schools, gained its first foothold as a means of general discipline of the mind and hand. This position it has been compelled to abandon. It now justifies its place in the general educational process by the emphasis such work places upon expression through constructive activity; also through the practical value of its subject matter and of its leadings in the line of special training.

The leading aims of such work should be:

1. To give an intelligent and appreciative view of the industrial world. The materials, processes, and significance of industry touch the lives of every one in this industrial age; and no pupil should leave the doors of the school without a fair appreciation of the economic and social significance of industry.

Leading Aims

2. To give some skill in the use of the more common tools. This should be done not only because of its practical value but also for the purpose of awakening an organic sympathy with the great world of industry.

3. To develop economic and social adaptability, the power and inclination to participate effectively in group activities. The cultivation of social habits and the ability to work well with our fellows is a prime necessity in modern society. The work-shop and the play-ground are two of the most helpful agencies for developing co-operative efficiency.

4. To assist pupils in an intelligent choice of their life-work. A wise choice of a life vocation is a vital matter, and yet it is ordinarily a matter of chance and temporary expediency. That the pupil should have intelligent and sympathetic assistance in deciding a matter of such far-reaching importance, and that he should have ample opportunity for discovering his special ability and inclination is evident. The school seems to furnish the best opportunity, under modern conditions, for the pupil to find himself. And there should no longer be any founda-

tion for the charge that it leads away from the industries and toward trade and the professions.

5. To prolong interest in learning, thus extending the period of educational effort. Parents send their children to school to fit them for working efficiency, for self-support, and a worthy development of their powers. Youths cannot profitably be held in school after the home and their own ideals begin to set a higher value upon the returns of the practical world outside the school room than upon the training of the ideal world within the school room.

While the elementary shop work has usually been limited to exercises in wood, it should now be remembered that wood is losing some of its importance as a constructive material, and that, therefore, before leaving school, the youth should learn something of the metals and the cement which are so largely replacing it.

Even in the elementary school the treatment of shop work should be such as to bring the pupil into touch with a fairly broad field of industry. This is necessary because the pupil who does not find himself in wood-working, sometimes meets with success in electricity, plumbing, machinery or engineering. While little can be done in an experimental way with some of these because of the age of the pupils, sufficient intelligence in regard to what they are, as well as their general processes and products, can be developed as a guide to those who are obliged to make a choice of occupation upon leaving the elementary school.

Technical Work in Chicago.—A committee of the board of education of the City of Chicago recently reported upon the best means of equipping their high schools for carrying on advanced technical work. Some interesting points in this report are as follows:

1. While pupils when they enter the higher schools should have an opportunity for selecting the department which seems best adapted to their aptitudes and capacities, they should not be expected before the end of the first or second year to make a choice that is final.

2. Pupils who select a general course should have an opportunity during these years of open choice of taking a certain amount of technical or commercial work, and *vice versa*. Hence, both technical and commercial courses should be offered in all the general high schools through the first and second years.

3. Although a sufficient number of high schools should be established to place one within walking distance of practically every pupil who may desire to be provided with this higher education, there should be only a few well equipped and centrally located schools for the more advanced technical work.

Influence of Machinery.—Machinery has done much to remove the desire for the high degree of skill of the old time artisan. The fact that the special skill that can be acquired only after years of painstaking effort may suddenly be rendered of little value, as a means of earning a living, by the introduction of a machine, leaves no incentive for the workman to make the effort to secure it. Nor do the employers of labor offer any additional inducements to such skilled people after the machine has supplanted their efforts; for they realize that the mind and muscles of the workman trained in a given direction are in reality less fit to operate the machine, or to be adapted to new conditions. Hence, we are beginning to see that in training for industry, adaptability and availability are worth more than mere skilled ability.

Lacking in Technical Education.—The Engineering News claims that "we are to-day something like five years behind Germany in iron and steel metallurgy." This condition is partly attributable to the work done by the German technical schools and partly to "the attitude of the trusts toward inventive progress. The United States has lost its supremacy as a field for the development of pioneer inventions."

Household Arts.—Doctor Schurman, of Cornell University, in commenting recently upon the course in house-

hold arts which that institution is now carrying on for women said: "Household arts for women are what engineering, law, medicine and other arts are to men—their work. We believe that a man wants law or engineering and educate him accordingly, and yet many never follow permanently the course studied. But we know that nine-tenths of the women we graduate will be married and become home-keepers and that they will thus not fail to use the training in the household arts that they are given."

Vocational Education in Europe. — Trade schools are to be found almost everywhere in the cities of continental Europe and are now multiplying rapidly in England. In countries like Switzerland, where an economic struggle with large and powerful neighbors is going on, every effort is being made to provide for the older pupils the best possible practical education and to accompany it with the civic and ethical instruction that will vitalize it for good citizenship. Although each of the 25 cantons of Switzerland has independent control of its school affairs, the federal government makes appropriation for vocational training. But these appropriations are made on the condition that the cantons contribute twice as much as is given from the federal treasury.

Trade School in Bavaria

As an illustration of how private firms, local authorities and the general government often coöperate in European places for the establishment and maintenance of trade schools, several points of interest have been gleaned from a report made in *Education* for November on a trade school established in Selb, Bavaria. The government upon petition from the porcelain manufacturers of that place, it being an important center for the porcelain industry, opened a trade school with the following rules for admission of pupils:

1. Proof that the public school education of applicants has been finished, and also that candidates are at least 16 years old.

2. Candidates must be of unblemished character.

3. They must furnish proof that they have had at least one year of practical training in a ceramic factory.

An exception to this last general rule is made in favor of those desiring to take special courses. The course in day instruction provides for drawing and painting, modeling, and technical instruction, as well as necessary instruction in the elementary branches. Among the branches of study are general chemistry, experimental chemistry, physics, mineralogy, instruction in the German language, industrial arithmetic and bookkeeping, sociology, the science of living, and ceramic technology. The course in the day school covers two years, but there is also a one-year special course that can be taken in the finishing school, which is in the nature of a continuation school. A small tuition fee is charged in the day school, but the finishing school can be attended free of charge by apprentices or helpers employed in ceramic factories. It is interesting to note that the present board of directors is composed of five factory owners or managers, two master modelers, and one master painter. This practically separates the local control of the school from that of the other school interests of the city, although the school comes under the general management of the regular educational department of the State. The school receives extensive gifts and material assistance in its work from firms interested in the ceramic industry.

Doctor Kerschensteiner's Lectures.—The Commercial Club of Chicago has published a pamphlet containing the three lectures delivered, during his recent visit to the United States, by Doctor George Kerschensteiner, who has so efficiently organized and carried on specific vocational training in the schools of Munich, Germany. Some of the valuable ideas emphasized by Doctor Kerschensteiner in these addresses follow:

The wealth of a country depends not only upon its natural resources but also upon the people who turn these

resources to account. And the more we investigate how best to do this, the more apparent it becomes that the problem is not a special but a general one—nothing less than the problem of educating the whole man. Alexander Magnus says that of the three main problems that enter into production—the machine problem, the material problem, and the man problem—the last is the most difficult, as well as the most important problem in competitive activity.

Three Problems of Production

The idea is rapidly growing in strength that the human element in industrial education cannot be so disregarded as to make future workers mere automatic machines. Hence "the one-sided education of workmen to dexterity is only an apparent solution of the problem." Dexterity attains its full value only when it is based on insight and backed by good moral character. "Perhaps the development of character is the most important part even in industrial education, for firmness and principle will lead a man to acquire dexterity and insight, but dexterity and insight are not always placed in the service of character."

As men are bound together by more or less common interests, there must not be a one-sided purely selfish training. The workman is also a citizen, and "as a citizen his welfare and interests are inseparably connected with the welfare and interests of all other citizens." Hence, every form of education must seek to train for the proper relations to these interwoven interests.

Workman a Citizen

In answer to the claim sometimes advanced that public money should be applied to the purposes of general education only, and not to specialized forms of education, Doctor Kerschensteiner said that he has a firm conviction not only that education for a calling offers us the very best foundation for a general education, but also that the useful man must be the predecessor of the ideal man. Everyone must be able to do some good and thorough work, though it be of the simplest kind. Not till then will

he be able both to satisfy his fellow-men and be of use to his country, and also to make his own life of value to himself. It is the only way to reach a higher culture. This being true, such training cannot be regarded as a private matter; "it becomes a matter of the community, a matter of the State." Hence, one of the first duties of the school is to provide the individual with the best opportunities for developing his skill and capacity for work.

But the highest object in all training should be the development of joy in work, and thereby of joy in life.

Joy in Work

True joy in work can only grow out of real capacity for it, and one of the advantages of trade school work is the appeal that it makes to young people to develop efficiency. "We can educate no one who is not happy in his work; and this is the point where we can intimately combine general and technical education." And it is the duty of the public school, to accustom the pupil to use his joy in his work and his skill in his work in the service of his fellow pupils and of his fellow man, as well as in his own service.

Our present schools have not yet fully grasped their threefold task: "first, education to skill in work and joy in work; secondly, education to readiness of service, consideration for others, and loyalty to school-fellows and to the school; and, thirdly, education to insight into the aims of the state community."

Our schools have not well performed their tasks because they release the pupil just at the point where, under prevailing arrangements, his real education begins. Hence, "not only the struggle for life but also the struggle for education (vocational) commences for millions of our countrymen at the age of fourteen. The competition for daily bread drives the half-grown boys and girls into the market. They take what they find." And then there is for the great mass of them only a most unpromising future. This shows the imperative need of continuation schools

which boys and girls should be compelled to attend during their apprenticeships in trade or industry. These continuation schools fulfill two purposes: first, youthful workers and apprentices are meeting the demands of trade and industry for workpeople, as well as the need of their earnings in the home; second, no citizen of the state need be left without an education, which should extend up to his eighteenth year.

There must be a distinct effort made by the schools to develop the moral force of the country. "The aim of society is the increase of justice and culture." Industry is apt to be interested in and ruled by selfish interests—the lust of gain and the development of unerring skill without regard to the joy that may be found in work. The country that is ruled by such principles "is doomed to inevitable ruin, as soon as the natural riches of the soil become exhausted and the population becomes too dense. Moral forces, like skill in work, grow on no other soil than that of joy in work." Moral capacity being far more important than the profitable use of economic forces, it is the duty of the state to supplement the one-sided training demanded by industry with education for culture and justice.

Moral Aims

Doctor Kerschensteiner then outlined certain fundamental ideas that should, to his mind, prevail in the organization of continuation schools,—the schools open to pupils who are over 14 years of age and who are employed. "This kind of continuation-school ought to be made compulsory for all boys and girls up to the age of 17 or 18, or in any case as long as apprenticeship lasts." The time allowed per day for this continuation-school work will necessarily vary in different places. In Germany it varies from 6 to 12 hours per week. Employers should be required to release such employees for 2 or 3 hours daily for this schooling. The evening hours must be excluded; for the majority of young people, especially, do not possess sufficient moral and

Fundamental Ideas

intellectual power to do this work well after the fatiguing day's work. "Most German states grant a subsidy only to towns that hold their continuation classes before seven o'clock in the evening."

The course of study for this work should be calculated "to take hold of the pupils by their egoistic interests in life and to ennoble these interests in the process." Their daily employment is full of this egoistic interest, but it usually presents unfavorable conditions for the development and outlook that tend to produce joy in the work. These the continuation-school should be well fitted to supply. It begins by teaching the pupil to understand and to execute his work more thoroughly; it ends by bringing the commercial, the scientific, the artistic, the civil and the moral into intimate connection with it. In this way, it broadens joy in work to joy in life with all of its satisfactions and services.

As one of the important aims of the continuation-school should be to train to the moral virtues of consideration for others and loyalty to others' work, such schools present exceptional possibilities for the community of effort that means so much to society. To accomplish this, "the whole plan of education must aim at turning as much school work as possible into work that can be done in common; at so arranging the tasks and the whole order of the schools that smaller or larger groups, or all the pupils together, are interested in the success of the work and are responsible for it." This training is well supplemented by the free effort of the pupils themselves whenever they unite, as they often do, for purposes of self improvement, of amusement, of physical training, or of practical charity.

An important factor in this continuation work is the coöperation of employers. Doctor Kerschensteiner has secured this in Munich by enlisting their interest through conceding them certain rights and getting them to assume certain duties. The best plan in his judgment is to induce

employers to make not only pecuniary but also personal sacrifices for the school, even when the school is a public one. "We do not value a thing until it has cost us something." He emphasized the fact that a good education should be possible to all boys and girls regardless of their circumstances. "It is of no advantage to a constitutional state to make its opportunities of culture accessible only to a small percentage." If all of the citizens of the state have the right, through suffrage, to influence its government, then the kind of education that will tend to make them influence it in the right way should be accessible to them.

In Germany, he says, everybody is now convinced that continuation-school work should be compulsory up to the age of 18 for all who are not attending other schools, because employers will not all voluntarily release young people from work during the necessary hours for this schooling. The teaching must be interwoven with the trade of the pupil, in order to secure and hold his interest. This makes it necessary to equip the continuation-school with workshops and laboratories for practical work, to serve as a center around which to gather all such other desirable work as will train for useful, happy citizenship. Nor is it wise to equip such schools for men alone. The more the population of a country increases and the harder the struggle for existence, the more is the wife obliged to contribute to the support and welfare of the family. Hence, the necessity of equipping the girls both for efficient household duty and also for trades by which they may earn or help to earn a livelihood. This sets a twofold task before the continuation-school for girls—that of preparing them for possible marriage and its consequent duties as housewives and mothers, and that of preparing them as wage-earners because they may not get married. The first, being the more natural for girls, needs first attention.

Compulsory Vocational Education

In Munich the primary school is compulsory for boys from 6 to 14 and for girls from 6 to 13. No fees are paid.

Kindergartens are provided for pupils of the age of 3 to 6, to which attendance is voluntary and for which fees are paid. Girls and boys who pass to higher schools to prepare for the professions, etc., leave the primary school at the age of 10. These higher schools are, in Munich, both public and private and charge a nominal fee of about one dollar a month. These higher schools are the Gymnasia, Realschulen, Oberrealschulen, and the higher girls' schools. The compulsory primary school is followed by the compulsory continuation-school for all who do not attend a higher school. Attendance is compulsory for boys during the whole of their apprenticeship, but not beyond the 18th year; it is compulsory for girls for a period of 3 years. Attendance is free of charge. The compulsory continuation course for boys may be followed by an optional course, where there is a charge of from fifty cents to a dollar a month. The compulsory continuation-school for boys has 8 to 10 hours of instruction a week; the girls now have 6 hours a week. But the girls may attend a compulsory continuation-school providing up to 12 hours' instruction a week, and also a voluntary 8th-year class, before leaving the primary school, with 30 hours of instruction a week. Because of these provisions and the popularity of the various schools in Munich, 93 per cent of all of the boys and girls between the ages of 6 and 18 are in school, and this is 18 per cent of the entire population.

A trade school is established in Munich for every trade that has at least 25 apprentices. The trades having many apprentices have at their disposal trade schools located in different parts of the city, in order to shorten the distance to school. "To most trade schools is attached an association of employers, who bear the expense of school material, take part in the discussions on the plan of instruction, have the right of proposing technical teachers, assist in the supervision of the practical subjects, coöperate in the examination of apprentices, and help to spread the

interest in the school and to further its prosperous development. This has served both to foster their interest in the trade schools and to raise the standard in their own shops."

Each continuation-school also possesses its own board of management, which consists of the head-master, a member of the municipality, and 3 employers of the trade. Every apprentice spends one whole day or two half days each week in the school. This usually involves a lower salary for him, although some employers pay for the full week. Many of the teachers are fully employed by the school; others give lessons there in addition to their other work. Management

The work in the compulsory continuation-schools in Munich is centered around practical instruction in the workshop, the laboratory, the shop or the garden. The teaching in drawing and arithmetic is very intimately connected with the practical instruction. Nothing is drawn that has not been made or will be made in the workshop. And every process in work of construction is followed out in figures. By making out both preliminary estimates and bills, as well as by keeping an account of the time involved in the construction of an article or the completion of a process, the commercial and business side of the work is developed. The practical instruction is also intimately associated with the study of materials, tools, and machines. Especially is the pupil familiarized with the mechanical laws under which machines and tools work. Whenever a knowledge of physics and chemistry is involved, the pupils work in the laboratory for the purpose of getting the conceptions and laws necessary for well understood work. The purpose of the technical instruction is to let the pupil "find pleasure in simple, careful, thorough, conscientious work in genuine materials, and to encourage him to new attempts through the feeling of security in his own power." His moral insight is enlarged by suitable lessons; and his taste for literature, by the reading of good authors in the class and the loaning

of good books from the school library. In addition to this the pupils have one lessson in religion each week up to their sixteenth year. Civic instruction is given through tracing the historical development of the trade under study. Through this, he is led to see the growing interdependence of all classes and occupations and is also given concrete examples of devotion to a common cause. His insight into present-day problems and the duties and rights of the individual within the state is brought out in similar ways, and his will is strengthened in these directions by the association of the pupils in working groups, especially in the last school year. Hygienic training is given not only by special instruction in hygiene but also by gymnastics, games and organized walks and journeys.

Protests against Vocational Education. — Notwithstanding the growing popularity of vocational education, many protests are being made against it by those who fear that it will be over-emphasized and to an undesirable extent supplant the scholarly attainments that make for culture and refinement. Among others, Professor Münsterberg is very pronounced in his opinion concerning those who would like to carry the demands of earning a living "down into college, into the high school, and into the primary school. They fancy that everything which is not directly useful for the vocational technic is a waste of time and energy." In "the rush of the market" they have "stuffed our colleges with practical subjects" and have emphasized unduly in our high-school work "the one point of view that only that which is directly applicable to the future trade can be worth while." He adds that if this tendency were to win the day, society would be threatened with uneducated experts, the cultural foundations of our life-work would become thinner and thinner, the whole cultural level of the community would sink, and the value and worthiness of our social fabric would rapidly diminish. He claims that there is a strong reaction against "such superficial tendencies," and that communities are coming to feel with increasing earnest-

ness "that ultimately the general education counts more than anything for the lifework of the nation, and that any professional training without such a basis is shallow and finally inefficient."

Women he regards as especially the real guardians of the national culture. In the pioneer days, while the men opened up the land and organized business and politics, women had to protect the ideal interests. And if they now, too, were to yield "to the short-sighted view which disregards culture, and would like to transform the school-time into a mere period of apprenticeship for practical trades, the future of the country would be most seriously threatened."

Doctor Andrew S. Draper, State Commissioner of Education in New York, in a recent address, referred to the fear expressed by such persons that we are becoming too materialistic in our educational ideals and said: "Let there be no prolongation of distress on this account. There is no danger. Our democracy is to be worked out both educationally and industrially just as much as it is politically and religiously." And this, of course, involves change; but it is not a change that should cause alarm, for no State will ever "relax her grasp upon the things which culture the minds and souls of men." It is hoped, however, that every one will realize "that the finest and deepest culture comes through work, that work by the hand and work by the head are yokefellows in our free civilization, and that both the rights and the prosperity of the people hinge upon the professional and industrial equilibrium of her tax-supported education." *

Vocational Guidance.—An interesting course of lectures was given by Mr. Myer Bloomfield, director of the vocational bureau of Boston, at the 1911 sessions of the Harvard Summer School. The lectures were given especially for the benefit of teachers, and had for their purpose such an exposition of the theory and practice of vocational

* See also Annals of Educational Progress in 1910, Chapter I, J. B. Lippincott Co., Philadelphia.

education as would enable them to wield a helpful influence over pupils in their choice of a vocation. The great number of young people who, for the sake of early employment, take up work with little or no future in it for them, combined with the unhappiness and lack of success due to occupational misfits, have become a matter of great concern to teachers and other social workers. And the vocational bureau of Boston has been one of the best-organized efforts in the direction of assisting to a wise choice of the life-calling. But the efforts of Mr. Bloomfield and his colleagues have been largely with adults. Hence this new effort marks a valuable step toward carrying their work into the field where it should reach a larger number and at a time when such vocational guidance should be of the maximum benefit.

Vocational Guidance in England

Such vocational guidance has been applied in an especially valuable way in Liverpool, England, where the school-masters, in conjunction with the Education Committee, assume the duty of placing pupils in positions which offer them the best prospects for ultimate success. The object of the Liverpool plan is to do away with such occupations as admit of no advancement—errand boys, messenger boys, etc. In such occupations, because of the great number available for them, the remuneration is so small that as boys grow older they are compelled to abandon them with their chances in life but little advanced over what they were when they left school. Such occupations have been well named "blind-alley occupations," for they lead nowhere so far as growth and success are concerned.

"Vocational Guidance of Youth"

Professor Paul H. Hanus, in the introduction to Meyer Bloomfield's "Vocational Guidance of Youth," says that three of the important tendencies in the educational activities of to-day are as follows: (1) The safeguarding and promotion of bodily health and vigor by hygienic and physical training in the schools; (2) The progressive establishment of public vocational

schools of elementary and secondary grade for increasing the efficiency of all who must work for wages; (3) To make schools of every grade and kind more vital—to make school life so significant a part of the whole of life that it shall remain a permanent guiding force. He then adds that the school must be made a more important factor both in the proper training for a vocation and in the helping in the selection of a well-adapted vocation.

Mr. Bloomfield says that such guidance to be effective involves:

1. Such information from pupils and applicants themselves as will help to a clear understanding of:

(*a*) Their physical condition.

(*b*) Their ambitions.

(*c*) Their opportunities and circumstances in life.

2. Such information about occupations themselves as will make clear:

(*a*) Their advantages and disadvantages.

(*b*) The kind of preparation necessary to follow them with safety and success.

(*c*) The rewards of success in the various occupations.

(*d*) The preparation necessary for progressive success in them.

3. Trained guides and advisers for those seeking vocational guidance.

4. Bringing home to all their need of further schooling after they secure positions.

He also emphasizes the need of lengthening our compulsory education period by well-adapted continuation-school work for those who secure employment—such schooling to be continued at least until the age of 16 is reached.

The age of 14 Mr. Bloomfield regards as a vocationally dangerous period, because of the ease with which "blind-alley occupations" are secured and the temptations they hold out to ignorant parents and their unguided sons and daughters. If parents at this period had all the necessary information in regard to conditions of employment and

the wages and future prospects of the various occupations, they would be able to guide their children more wisely. But there is also a great and permanent loss to society which gains so little by the labor of such young people. It is not so much, however, because of the low wages they then receive, as because it is such an important period of their growth. There is also a strong temptation for youthful employees to skip from job to job and to become what Mr. Bloomfield calls "vocational hoboes" who are in a fair way to swell the ranks of the "unemployables" later on.

From a careful study of the problem combined with his experience in vocational guidance in Boston, Mr. Bloomfield deems advisable:

Advisable Things

1. Vocational lectures to graduating classes.

2. Definite training for teachers so that they may be able to give vocational counsel.

3. That there should be a vocational director to coöperate with the superintendent and teachers.

4. Vocational card records of pupils, while they are in school and after they leave school, because they are exceedingly valuable. In Boston the vocational card provides for the elementary record on one side and the high-school record on the other.

5. Suitable books to form a vocational library in each large school.

6. That three aims should be kept clearly before all who are interested in the problem: (*a*) To secure thoughtful consideration on the part of parents, pupils and teachers of the importance of a life-career motive; (*b*) to give pupils needed assistance in securing remunerative work when they leave the school; (*c*) to keep in touch with them and render them help afterwards.

7. A vocational pamphlet, giving all necessary information in regard to callings, wages in them, etc.

"The movement for husbanding the serving powers of youth," he says, "is a practical expression of the deeper motives underlying the conservation enterprises of our day."

Agricultural Education

President Taft, in his addresses during the year, frequently emphasized the necessity for introducing new and better methods in agriculture in order that the food supply may adequately meet the needs of our growing population. Although the occupation of farming has always been the most wholesome and independent of any, its isolation and lack of modern comforts have been a serious drawback to its popularity as a calling. As long as the farmer lives remote from his fellow-men and without the means of comfort and satisfaction that modern developments have placed at the disposal of even the ordinary day laborer, the conditions of his life are hard; and they are even harder for his wife and children. But in many places modern progress is touching the life of the farm and is both enhancing its advantages and removing its disadvantages. Better roads, suburban railways, free rural delivery, the telephone, and improved farm machinery have accomplished much for rural life. But the effects of organized effort, as it manifests itself in the marketing of farm products and in the improved opportunities for education and culture in country districts, are accomplishing the greatest transformation.

It is a notorious fact that only a very small part of the great increase in the price of food, that has taken place in the last few years, finds its way into the pockets of the farmer who raised it. Most of it has gone to the numerous middlemen, who stand between the farmer and the consumer, and to the speculators in the necessities of life, who help to keep up prices by their absolute control of immense quantities of foodstuffs gathered into their cold storage plants. For this reason President Taft has been urging upon the farmers a demand for a parcel post, which would put them in more direct touch with the consumer.

"Middlemen"

High Cost of Food.—A striking illustration of one of the causes of the high cost of food, and of the importance

of the farmer's knowing how to market his products to advantage, was furnished in an investigation referred to by Representative S. W. Smith, in his speech on reciprocity with Canada. An apple grower in the famous apple region of the State of Washington received for a crate or box of beautiful apples 88 cents; the selling price in Washington, D. C., for this same crate was $4. Another grower received $1.52 for a box of apples which was sold in the National capital for $4.50. Similar prices were received by apple-growers in the same region for apples which in cities in the Eastern States retailed for 75 cents a dozen, or for from 4 to 10 times the prices paid the growers.

The investigation was pushed to the point of learning the causes of these great differences, and they were found to be as follows: The Fruit Growers' Association in the apple region bought the apples from the growers; it shipped them to a commission merchant in New York; they then passed into the possession of an apple broker in the same city; then a wholesale dealer in Washington, D. C., secured them from the broker, and he passed them along to the retailer who sold them to consumers. Hence, the "ultimate consumer" paid sufficient for these boxes of apples to contribute to the support of no less than five "middlemen," who had stepped between him and the men who grew the apples.

As the prices paid and received by the middleman are governed by no economic laws, excepting those pertaining to buying as cheaply as possible and of selling for all that the market will stand, the tendency toward establishing more direct relations between producers and consumers will undoubtedly grow.

Federal College of Agriculture.—A bill has been introduced into Congress for the establishment of a federal college of agriculture and the mechanic arts in the District of Columbia. The funds for the running expenses of the college are to be secured by extending the benefits of the Morrill Act (see "Annals of Ed. Progress in

1910") to the District of Columbia. An appropriation of $1,000,000 for the purchase of the site and the erection of the necessary buildings is provided for in the bill. The Secretary of Agriculture, the Commissioner of Education, and the chairman of the Board of Commissioners of the District of Columbia are to be members of the board of trustees, which is to be composed of twelve persons. The establishment of such a college at the seat of government would serve the double purpose of giving to agriculture the prominence that its importance warrants, while at the same time placing it where the Department of Agriculture could be of greatest service to it and at the same time derive the greatest benefit from its work and influence.

Department of Agriculture.—There have been important extensions of the educational work of the Department of Agriculture within recent months. The distribution of seeds for school-garden work and the coöperation with agricultural schools, especially in the South, have been greatly extended by the Bureau of Plant Industry. The Bureau of Forestry has judiciously been extending its appeal to teachers and school officials, many of whom are now anxious to use its material and information in connection with the nature work, the geography, and the instruction in agriculture. In many of the higher schools some of the more important features of forestry have been incorporated in the course of study. The Bureau of Animal Industry, which carried on the meat inspection service and a study of the methods of eradicating animal diseases, has been obliged to enlarge its force of trained veterinarians to meet the demands made upon it. In elementary work the principal development has been in the organization of contests for the growing of corn, cotton, potatoes, etc.

Special Trains.—An article written for *The Outlook* by Clifford B. Gregory indicates one of the changes of relation between the colleges and the people that is rapidly taking place. When, as now so often occurs, a professor

is given a special train in which to travel to the homes of the people of his State to instruct them in the best ideas of scientific farming, it shows that his college or university has reached a better appreciation of the problems of everyday life than has heretofore existed. When the people, as now always is found to be true, gladly embrace every opportunity to hear the professor's message, it shows that they are learning to value the scientific principles that accomplish results where "main strength and awkwardness" fail.

The agricultural college has applied science to the practical, everyday life of the farmer. At first this was done through bulletins; but it was soon discovered that these were lacking in the personal element that must furnish the inspiration so necessary to the success of any new movement. Then many tried the plan of holding farmers' institutes; and they reached and influenced more people. Short courses during the winter were next tried at these colleges; and still more people were effectively interested. But the greater part, and the most needy of the masses, were not yet reached; hence the adoption of the plan of carrying the instruction in agriculture to the people by means of the special trains—the people's farm school on wheels.

An incident referred to by Mr. Gregory well illustrates the influence of this train instruction. On one of the trips of the corn-special in Iowa, he asked a bright looking young farmer at one of the stations what he thought of Professor Holden's idea of corn-raising—Professor Holden being one of the most efficient workers in this line in the State. "I don't *think*, I *know*," replied the farmer, "that Professor Holden has added millions of dollars to the wealth of the State. He's taught us farmers to take an interest in our work and to study our crops. It isn't so much just this idea of testing seed-corn. That's good, of course, but if a man tests his seed-corn it means that he's pulled himself out of the rut and taken a new

An Incident

start. I just want to tell you an instance that happened over in my own locality. I have a neighbor over there, a strong, healthy young fellow, but he never could seem to get ahead. He said the farmers didn't have any chance, and he just plugged along in the same old way, considering himself lucky if he made enough to pay the rent. The first year the corn trains were run I got him to come over with me to hear Holden talk. He went home and tested his seed-corn. He seemed to spruce up from that time on. He took an interest in his work and began to keep things up in shape. He began to make money, too, and last year he bought a quarter-section. I laughed when he told me about it and asked him what he thought now about the farmers not having any chance. He said the trouble was there were so many chances that he didn't know which to take hold of first."

Train Schools

The railways have learned that their profits vary directly according to the crop yields; hence they are deeply interested in providing these special trains. As a direct result of a "better wheat" train run through Kansas, during the summer of 1910, upwards of 300,000 acres of pure wheat were sown in Kansas that fall. This produced a crop of approximately 5,000,000 bushels, for which was obtained an average of ten cents a bushel more than could have been gotten for the mixed wheat they had previously been planting. The farmers had been taught that, while their mixed wheat was producing but 130 loaves to the sack, the Minneapolis flour mills had been guaranteeing their flour to produce 180, and that this was the reason why Kansas wheat, although coming into the market earlier than that used by these mills, was not wanted by them.

But the corn and wheat specials are not the only trains that are furnishing schooling to the farmers. South Dakota and northern Iowa have added millions of bushels to their oat crop by means of oat trains. Illinois ran a "good roads" train and taught the farmers how they might

have good roads for the entire year, and an entire domestic science train with demonstration and lecture cars has been planned for Iowa. Rice trains have been run in Arkansas, cotton trains in Louisiana, a dry-farming train in Texas, a horse-train in Kentucky, dairy trains in Wisconsin and New York, and now, in the corn growing states, the farmers gather at the shrill whistle of the "Breakfast Bacon Special" to hear about how to raise hogs and of the rich returns possible by so doing. Truly a new era has opened for the busy farmer who is willing to take up again the joy of being a learner in such interesting schools.

Plant Breeding.—Luther Burbank, Dr. Spillman of the United States Department of Agriculture, and a score of other noted men continue their good work in plant breeding. Improvements in the quality of fruits, grains, fodders, and flowers, with a marked advance in their power of resisting disease and in their adaptation to a variety of climatic conditions brought about by these wizards of nature, have greatly increased the possibilities of the soil and greatly promoted the prosperity of the tillers of the soil. As the United States is so largely an agricultural country, this increase of the resources of the soil is becoming a large factor in national as well as individual prosperity. At the same time it is giving greater stability to our available food supply and making more remote the possibility of famine.

We call these men wizards; but, after all, their methods are comparatively simple. When Burbank finds a plant, with a quality he desires for another plant of the same family, he crosses the two by scattering some of the pollen of the flower of one of the plants over one of the flowers of the other. If he does not at first secure the desired qualities in the resulting fruit of the crossing, he continues to cross the flowers of the two until he does secure a more desirable offspring. Great patience and care are necessary in the operation; for, in the continued crossing, will appear

every possible combination of the qualities of the two plants crossed. But, while such hybridization produces such a variety of combinations, it produces them in definite proportions in the mixture. Finally, mixtures will be secured which differ from each parent in one quality only, and among these mixtures will eventually be found the desired plant. This practically means that the plant-breeder is able, by continuing his operations of cross-breeding long enough and carefully enough, to eliminate bad qualities in a plant and to add desirable qualities by bringing together, often from distant parts of the world, the various types of the plant that he desires to evolve by his hybridizing processes. The most interesting thing connected with the whole matter is the fact that we have but just begun in such work. The enticing field of labor that it presents adds another opportunity to the many already open to painstaking, persistent, intelligent effort.

School Buildings

Several disastrous fires during the year, especially the one in a New York factory in March, in which 145 lives were lost, have called attention once again to the necessity for making the exits from all buildings in which a number of people are congregated absolutely safe and usable in an emergency. This is especially true in schools where the age of the inmates is apt to make them absolutely helpless in case of fire or any other cause for a panic. The fact that our methods of safeguarding life are apt to be inadequate, owing to our being loath to go to the necessary expense of providing fire-proof buildings with roomy exits, still indicates a lack of appreciation of the supreme importance of the problem. While a tendency to do no more in this direction than the law requires can be understood in the case of a certain type of manufacturers and owners of places of amusement, it is difficult to understand such indifference or penuriousness in case of the public schools where great throngs of children are con-

gregated for so many of the working days of the year. Although carefully conducted fire-drills give some assurance of safety, even in school buildings poorly equipped for safe exit, every precaution needs to be taken for safety, for these drills might fail to cover every emergency possible in any great gathering of human beings. Neither expense nor careful planning should be spared where the lives of our little ones are at stake.

New Type Demanded.—The use of the school building as a community center is creating a strong demand for a type of building that affords better facilities also for the regular day pupils. The use as a recreation center creates a demand for a proper gymnasium and recreation room; the use for evening lectures and as a meeting place for home and school associations, and the various efforts for social and civic improvement, call for a meeting place in every large school that is more suitable than the ordinary classroom. The very fact that the interests of the community are being centered in the school demands greater care in regard to such essentials as heating, ventilation, light, roominess, fireproofing, etc.

Improvements.—The sanitary drinking fountain and the individual drinking cup are fast driving out the common and dangerous tin dipper, and the days of the dust-raising broom and the dust-scattering feather duster are ended. We are nearing the time when our schools will be as clean as our hospitals and for the same reason—to prevent the spread of disease. We have already made great progress in securing not only fresh, but pure air, the maximun amount of light possible, and the facilities for play and exercise that do so much both to prevent disease and to foster good health.

Bulletin number 101 of the Department of Child Hygiene of the Russell Sage Foundation devotes most of its space to consideration of the hygiene of the school room and of the school building. It deals very forcibly with such valuable innovations as individual drinking cups, sanitary

fountains of drinking water, vacuum cleaners, and adjustable pupils' desks. It places the number of cities that provide individual drinking cups at nearly 300 and the number using the sanitary fountain at approximately 800. More than 60 per cent of the 1038 cities reported upon insist upon cleaners using moist cloths in dusting, and nearly 800 of the cities require that dust-absorbing materials shall be sprinkled on the floor prior to sweeping. Eighty-nine cities are having their school-room sweeping done with vacuum cleaners.

Report on School Hygiene

Open-air Rooms.—Teaching tubercular and anæmic children in what is practically the open air is growing in favor. There are three types of open-air school rooms that are being tried out as to physical results for the pupils themselves, as to convenience and ready adaptability, and as to expense. These are the roof type, in which the school room is erected on the roof of a building; the open-sided room type, in which the windows of a regular class-room, if ample in area, are adapted to opening to their full width or, if inadequate, are increased to the extent of taking in the whole side of the room; and the separate-building type.

"Quiet Zones" for Schools

Mrs. Isaac L. Rice of New York has been promoting an effort to secure for schools the same freedom from nerve-wrecking noises that has been secured for so many hospitals located on noisy thoroughfares in our large cities. She describes some of the work accomplished in both of these directions in an article in *The Forum* for December. She says that she was surprised to discover the amount of preventable noise that exists and the extent of the bad effects of outside noises upon the work and physical conditions of the class-rooms located near such distracting influences. The nervous tension generated thereby, the strain upon the voice and the sense of hearing, and the waste of time and efficiency, are some of the more prominent losses mentioned by teachers and prin-

cipals who have been compelled to work in such schools.

Some of the things that need to be remedied to bring about these "quiet zones" are: (1) The reduction of traffic noises by the use of a quiet form of street pavement; restraining the needless clanging of car-gongs, the honking of auto-horns, and unnecessary street cries; remedying the pounding of trolleys over loosely jointed tracks and the noises produced by street-car mechanism that is out of repair; and in so far as possible the removal of noisy industries from near proximity to the school.

Rural School Buildings

The Superintendent of public schools in Pennsylvania, Doctor Nathan C. Schaeffer, calls attention in his last annual report to the great need of proper school buildings in rural districts. "A campaign for better rural schoolhouses is needed," he says. "The cities are erecting school buildings which, in point of heating, lighting, ventilation, sanitation, seating and general comfort, surpass the average home in the best communities. But in the remote rural districts, where population is stationary, if not diminishing, the schoolhouses are gradually deteriorating. Adequate repairs are seldom made, and still more seldom are the old schoolhouses replaced by modern structures. The decay of rural life is an alarming symptom. The effort to create an interest in the rural schools of outlying districts is one of the most necessary and commendable steps forward that can be made. If some financial assistance could be furnished toward the building of schoolhouses in remote districts the encouragement thus given would in no long time beget a pride everywhere in the schoolhouse and its surroundings."

Rural Water-closets. — State Superintendent Edward Hyatt of California calls attention plainly and forcibly to a condition of affairs which would not be tolerated for an instant in any good home and which should even less be permitted in a school, for the very reason

that the physical and moral danger referred to touches the lives of so many more young people.

He says: "Don't you know some school water-closet which you are ashamed to enter? There the floors are wet and filthy, the air polluted, the walls putrid with every obscene device that can be made with knife, and pencil and chalk. That's immorality. It's bad—bad for the modesty and morals of the little children who most frequent them. Would you dismiss all this with a shrug, as something hallowed by time and endeared by tradition as a necessary feature of the American rural school? But it isn't a necessary feature. People don't want their children brought up under such conditions."

And Superintendent Hyatt might well have added that where it is permitted it is either because people are not aware of the conditions or that they do not realize the serious menace that lies in these disease-breeding, soul-contaminating adjuncts of far too many rural school buildings. School administrators who should know better are criminally negligent when they permit such conditions to continue. The excreta from the body of a diseased person are regarded by bacteriologists as peculiarly dangerous because of the multitude of disease germs that they are apt to contain. Flies that breed in or come in contact with this refuse carry the germs to man and beast. Especially is this the case where they have ready access to the excreta in open closets or where water is allowed to drain through the closets out upon the surrounding soil.

Moral Danger

These closets should always have cement wells, should be securely closed from the flies, and should be liberally supplied with lime or wood-ashes and fine dry earth. They should also be frequently cleaned. But above all they should be kept clean—clean from the filth of excreta in the well, clean from the filth of suggestion upon the walls. For the sake of moral decency they should also be screened from the public view, both in approach and entrance.

School Attendance

In a monograph on "The Elimination of Pupils from School" Professor Edward L. Thorndike of Columbia University, after a very thorough study of the subject, concludes that, at present, of all pupils entering the first or lowest grade of the elementary school, only 40 per cent remain through the last grammar grade, and only a meager 8 per cent continue their schooling until they graduate from the secondary or high school.

Tabular Statement.—The following tabular statement indicates some interesting facts in regard to the rapid growth of the public schools of the United States:

SCHOOL ATTENDANCE

Average length of school term in days:	1870–71	1908–09	Increase
For the whole United States	132.1	155.3	18 per cent.
Highest—North Atlantic Division	152.0	179.0	18 per cent.
Greatest proportionate increase—South Atlantic Division	97.4	138.6	42 per cent.
Average number of days schooling given each year for every child 5 to 18 years of age:	1870–71	1908–09	Increase
For the whole United States	48.7	81.3	67 per cent.
Highest—North Atlantic Division	70.2	102.2	46 per cent.
Greatest proportionate increase—South Atlantic Division	18.1	59.3	228 per cent.

Enrollment and attendance:	1870–71	1908–09	Increase
Enrollment for the whole United States	7,561,582	17,506,175	132 per cent.
Cities of 8000 and over	...	4,963,880	...
Cities and towns 4000 to 8000	...	753,832	...
Rural and semi-rural	...	11,788,463	...

Average daily attendance:	1870–71	1908–09	Increase
For the whole United States	4,545,317	12,684,837	18 per cent.
Cities of 8000 and over	...	3,948,483	...
Cities and towns 4000 to 8000	...	596,454	...
Rural and semi-rural	...	8,139,900	...

Percentage of the entire enrollment for the United States who are in rural or semi-rural schools (towns and villages under 4000), 67.

THE HEALTH OF PUPILS

Medical Inspection

While all of the large cities and most of the smaller ones now have medical inspection of the school children, it is not yet as general as it should be in the smaller towns and the rural and semi-rural districts. Nor has it yet reached the completeness, in most of the places where it is in vogue, that its importance demands. One of the reasons given for this is the expense. But when it is remembered that the cost of even quite complete medical supervision need not much exceed an average of fifty cents per year for each pupil in attendance the expense cannot be regarded as prohibitive. And it should be remembered that epidemics, physical defects, and the work and days lost through colds, headaches, indigestion, and the various abnormal conditions that prevent the best work being done by the pupil in the minimum amount of time—all greatly increase the time required to complete a given course of study. Hence they add greatly to the time and expense necessary to carry pupils through the course; and it would seem as if there would be an actual saving, even in dollars and cents, by paying liberally for the most careful and complete medical inspection. And this takes no account of the added comfort and efficiency gained by pupils whose defects of vision and hearing and breathing have been remedied by the medical expert, nor of the great economic and social gains to the community where good health and physical vigor are general. Nor does it take into account the sorrow and loss resulting from a high death rate. When the city of New York lowered its death rate from 25 to 18 per thousand, largely through the effective work of its school physicians, the indirect economic gain from that factor alone unquestionably more than offset the expense.

It is estimated that fully one-fourth of all cases of backwardness and incorrigibility in school are directly

traceable to remediable troubles of sight and hearing; and many cases of arrested development have been completely cured by the removal of adenoids and other causes of defective breathing. One experienced physician boldly asserts that "Truancy, child labor, the juvenile criminal, and the moral and mental defective, in greater part, have their origin in the unrecognized, unattended, physically defective pupil."

Backwardness and Incorrigibility

One of the most important campaigns that is being carried on by these medical inspectors of our public school children is against drinking cups that are used in common by a large number of children. It has been clearly demonstrated that in almost every case in which a common drinking cup or glass had been in use for a week its edge was covered with thousands of virulent disease germs. Epidemics of measles and even of diphtheria have time and again been traced to the school drinking cup. The school physicians were the first to discover this and to spread the alarm. But this has been only one of an extended service rendered by them. As Henry M. Hyde says in the *Saturday Evening Post* of February 18, "Physicians are the only class of men in the world whose hardest and most zealous work is devoted to the destruction of the prospects of their business."

Drinking Cups

At all events, from every standpoint, it is becoming apparent that the welfare of the child, and of the social order of which it is such an important part, both demand the utmost possible care of the body upon which the child's present and future possibilities so fully depend, and that pleas of economy on the part of school administrators are beginning to appear more like pleas of ignorance or of more criminal indifference.

"Follow-up" Work.—Some fault has been found in New York City with the present system of medical examination on the ground that no provision is made for following up the recommendations of the physicians when they require action on the part of the home. Parents, partic-

ularly the poorer ones, are often lax about heeding the instructions of the school physicians, especially if there is any expense or serious inconvenience attached to them. This, by the way, is the most serious difficulty that the new system of medical inspection in England is encountering. Careful and persistent "follow-up" work is absolutely essential in most cases if permanently good results are to be secured from this valuable agency in the health of school children.

Report of Russell Sage Foundation.—The most complete report that has yet been made on what is being done for the health of public school pupils in the United States, is to be found in Bulletin 101 of the Department of Child Hygiene of the Russell Sage Foundation. This report shows that, while the number of cities having medical inspection ten years ago was only 11, now there are 443. This is a remarkable growth since the first physicians were employed for this purpose in Boston in 1894. New York was the first city to employ school nurses to assist in safeguarding the health of the children during school hours, and to follow up the directions of the school physician by visiting the homes of the children. This was nine years ago; and since that time the plan has been adopted in 79 other cities. Sixty-nine cities now also employ dentists to care for the teeth of their school children. Practically all of the 1038 cities embraced in the report give instruction in the evil effects of the use of alcohol and tobacco. More than half of the cities give instruction and training in first aid to the injured, while 649 of them have a series of special lessons devoted to the prevention and cure of tuberculosis.

The Teaching of Physiology.—The way to assure good health is to train the child into proper care of its body. A marked change is going on in the school instruction concerning the human body and how to take care of it. A few years ago, emphasis was placed upon the structure of the body and its tissues and upon the function and the

method of functioning of the various parts of the body. Now the emphasis is being placed upon the more important matters of health and habits of right living. While the former plan was interesting and often led to hygienic habits, we have learned by sad experience that Socrates was wrong when he held that *knowledge* of right action is a guarantee of right action. The latest scientific ideas on the sources of the common diseases and the measures necessary to avoid them, and on the habits of life which tend to physical vigor and to physical resistance both to fatigue and to disease, are of more value to the individual than any mere knowledge of living tissue and its use in the human body can possibly be. Especially is it important that our pupils know how to take proper care of the nervous system, and that they form habits of life which tend to make it a source of continual physical and spiritual pleasure, instead of the means of utter human wretchedness which it is so apt to become under the severe tension of our American life.

Care of the Eyes.—The school authorities in Chicago are endeavoring, in a very practical way, to impress upon the minds of the school children of that city the important ways in which they can take proper care of their eyes. In each text-book used by the pupils is pasted a label on which is printed the following advice:

1. Your eyes are worth to you more than any book.
2. Your safety and success in life depend upon your eyes; therefore, take care of them.
3. Always hold your head up when you read.
4. Hold your book fourteen inches from your face.
5. Be sure that the light is clear and good.
6. Never read in a bad light.
7. Never read with the light shining directly on the book.
8. Never face the light when reading.
9. Let the light come from behind you or over the left shoulder.

10. Avoid books or papers printed indistinctly or in bad type.

11. Rest your eyes by looking away from the book every few minutes.

12. Cleanse your eyes night and morning with pure water.

Open-air Schools.—The saner practice coming into instruction and into safeguarding for health is also leading to definite efforts to help the bodily weak. State Superintendent Schaeffer has emphasized the appeal of the tubercular child in his last annual report. He says: "On the basis of special investigations in Boston and New York, it is estimated that there are nearly a million school children in the United States to-day who will probably die of tuberculosis before they have reached the age of 18 years, and that one-half, if not three-fourths, of this sickness could be prevented. For such children open-air schools are needed. The best things for a tubercular child are a nourishing diet and the open air. To confine it in the ordinary school room is to hasten its death, and to expose other children to the infection. It is encouraging to note that Philadelphia and Harrisburg have made provision for open-air schools, and that other cities are earnestly considering the problem."

SPECIAL TYPES OF PUPILS

Commissioner Draper has again called attention to the need of making the school as serviceable as possible to every child in the State. The State is deeply interested in this because of the serious economic loss that results from backwardness. The boy who fails of promotion has lost an academic term and is at least six months behind where he ought to be. If then he leaves school at the legal age permitted by the compulsory school law of the State in which he resides, he has not received as much education as he should and has not the preparation for citizenship to which the State and the community are entitled. If he continues through the high school and

the college, he arrives at the period of productive usefulness just that much later than he should for the best welfare of the State and the community. Hence there is a special obligation upon administrators of education to make a strong effort to bring such pupils back into the ranks of normal progress, through individual teaching and all of the various means that reach and stimulate their understanding and effort.

Special Classes

Special classes are being established everywhere, especially in the more progressive of the Eastern States, for the instruction of such backward pupils. Many of the largest schools in a number of cities now have one or more special classes in which such pupils receive the help that is calculated to remedy their deficiencies. This not only tends to conserve time, that most valuable of all assets of the State and of the individual, but it also relieves the regular classes from carrying the "dead wood" which would only serve to retard the work of the other pupils.

Backward Pupils

On this same subject Dr. Leonard P. Ayres, in speaking of the influence upon educational practice of the efforts to meet the needs of backward pupils, recently said: "We discovered that the dragnet of compulsory education was bringing into our schools hundreds of children who were unable to keep step with their companions, and, because this interfered with the ordinary administration of our school systems, we began to ask why these children were backward. The result has been the making of special provisions for dealing with the backward child. These have developed and expanded until they now bid fair to benefit the children who are not backward."

Retardation

Superintendent F. A. Verplanck of South Manchester, Conn., is using a method of recording data, concerning the pupils of the public schools of that place, which should be of great assistance in solving the intricate problem of

the causes of retardation. Realizing the value of comparing pupils who fail of promotion with those who succeed, along all lines that might account for the varying results, he adopted the plan of filling out such records for both the promoted and the non-promoted. The tabulation of the results at a recent promotion showed the following:

(*a*) While 81 per cent of the girls were promoted, only 75 per cent of the boys so succeeded.

(*b*) The promoted pupils were younger than the non-promoted pupils.

(*c*) The percentage of absence was far greater among the non-promoted than among the promoted.

(*d*) The percentage of each of the following, among the promoted as compared with the percentage among the non-promoted, was

	Promoted	Non-promoted
From non-English-speaking homes	9	12
Foreign-born	7	13
Suffering from malnutrition	9	25
Poor mentality	8	49
Defective eyesight	4	3
Adenoids	15	20
Other throat troubles	14	13
Defective teeth	25	38

Although the results of such an investigation would undoubtedly vary in different localities, Superintendent Verplanck's plan furnishes such an excellent basis of comparison, both for judging from the standards of success and for seeing the relative importance of retarding causes, that it should furnish valuable suggestions to others. Could this or some similar scheme be agreed upon by a sufficient number of superintendents, it would also furnish a much needed uniformity of basis of comparison in the often discussed and badly interpreted subject of retardation.

Special Classes

Excellent suggestions in regard to backward and defective pupils have been made by the Training School for Backward and Feeble-minded Children at Vineland, N. J.

These suggestions grew out of an important investigation of conditions in an entire city and are as follows:

First: The retarded or backward pupil should be removed from the regular class. One of these children will take as much of the teacher's time as a number of normal children, while at the same time he may cause her as much trouble and mental fatigue as all of the rest of the school. Such children should be grouped together and given a special instructor who has been trained to understand them and to deal with them in accordance with their natures and infirmities.

Second: No school system of 500 children can afford not to have at least one of these special classes. There may be recognized only ten or twelve such children for whom it would be necessary to employ a special teacher, but the gain not only to them but to the normal children also will more than repay the additional expense.

Third: The objection that is often made, to the effect that it is difficult to get parents to accede to such a plan, is met by saying that this is wholly a matter of procedure. If rightly done, the parents will not only approve but will be gratified and delighted at the results. If the special class is made both in outward appearance and in inward plan a place where children are happy because they succeed and because the pleasant side of life is always emphasized with them, children and parents give no trouble on the score of objection.

Fourth: Children who are not profiting by the efforts of good teachers in regular classes are the ones who should be provided for in these special classes. If all of the backward and defective children cannot be provided for, then at least the worst cases should be. But there must be no attempt to give these children the same work that is being given in the classes of normal children; for it may neither appeal to them nor may they be capable of doing it. The idea that they may accomplish the same if they are given more time is a mistake. It has been found, for

example, that the reading, writing, and number work of these children, while it sometimes looks good, is really mostly rote work and of no permanent value to them.

THE SUBNORMAL CHILD.—Miss Vinnie Crandall Hicks gives a very graphic description, in the February issue of *The Elementary School*, of the type of subnormal child whose physiological condition is apt to be unrecognized by the average teacher. In such children, the outward appearance frequently presents little evidence of the subnormal condition; hence, they are apt to be innocent victims of much misunderstanding and misdirected effort. Even their parents are apt to misjudge them and unsympathetically to attribute their apathy, lack of responsiveness, and general slowness to "pure ugliness" of disposition.

In the case of the boy described by Miss Hicks, the only outward evidences of abnormality were a peculiar use of the eyes, a lack of expression in the face, and something of the gait and carriage of an old man. He had a clear healthy skin, good teeth, evidently good circulation and seemed well nourished. Although the hands are usually abnormal in size and appearance in subnormal cases, in this boy they were small and delicately formed. However, he displayed the customary tendencies to manifestations of fear that are peculiar to such cases. In his case the tendency was probably due to a severe attack of diphtheria which he had when a baby, the poison of which seemed so to clog his nerve cells that they reacted slowly to stimuli and often not at all. Evidently his muscular coordinations were not properly developed, and his faculty of generalization small; hence, he was unable to cope with his environment either physically or mentally. Thus the demand on his nerve cells for work for which they were unfitted resulted in fear. In many such cases, this abnormal fear leads children to shun playmates and to show great sensitiveness to their noise. Unusual noises will also greatly alarm them and, even after careful training, make it impossible for them to concentrate their attention while the

noises continue. He could grasp readily simple reading matter which at the same time was interesting to him, but if he lost his place while reading, it was an exceedingly difficult task for him to find it again. Evidence of dissatisfaction with him only increased this inability and in general increased the clogging of his nerve reactions. Of course, in such cases extreme patience is necessary, as it is well to remember that what is easy for the normal child may be extremely difficult to the subnormal child—the accomplishment of a very simple task often meaning hard labor for them.

What Miss Hicks attempted at first to do for this child was to give him training in concentration, in muscular coördination, and in visualizing — the latter because, in his case, the auditory perception was fairly acute while the visual and tactual were weak. Calisthenic exercises and dancing lessons were given to bring about better muscular association. The music in connection with the dancing had the effect of allaying his abnormal fears. Breathing exercises were also given for the sake of healthy nose and throat conditions. To assist concentration all possible distractions were removed and devices were used to conceal all but the actual work before him. Card games of various sorts were also turned to good use in conveying instruction and increasing the power of voluntary attention. Various devices were used to improve his visual and tactual perceptions. One of these, in number work, was to give him a copy of the work desired and then to have him place his finger upon the successive steps as he repeated them from the copy or reproduced them from the copy. Such work proved valuable because it simultaneously fixed his attention both visually and tactually upon the numbers. For separate tactual drills bright colored sticks were used.

Devices

All such work is almost exclusively individual work, and the ordinary school does not willingly keep subnormal children. And yet, if not too seriously subnormal, they

benefit by the stimulating influence of well-regulated contact with other children. However, special class-rooms and special instruction should be provided for them while they are in the school. Otherwise they only worry the teacher, take more than their rightful share of her time, and often become marks for the ridicule of their playmates. Besides they are apt to suffer sadly from a regime unfitted to their development and ability. But teachers should be able to recognize signs of subnormality and to apply the simpler tests which make evident what children need special instruction.

The Mentally Deficient.—The very successful manner in which physically and mentally deficient boys and girls are being developed and trained is arousing a hitherto unknown interest in the practical application of some of the most fundamental educational principles. That these unfortunate physical outcasts of society can through wise and sympathetic teaching be trained into usefulness and happiness and, to a large extent, brought within the pale of general industrial and social usefulness, stands as a silent reproof against our failure to make all that we should out of our opportunities with the normal child.

Ideas like the following have been found of great value in arousing the sleeping faculties of the mental defectives at such institutions as the Vineland Training School and are full of meaning in all teaching. As a writer in the *Review of Reviews* for September says, they throw a new light on what has been called "the new science of humaniculture."—

Training School at Vineland

1. Interest is essential to effective education. The defective must be neither forced nor urged to work. Day by day they should be given material for work and every effort should be made to beguile them into noticing that which may arouse their interest and furnish a foundation on which to build their education. After a method of approach is once discovered, the task of guiding and helping them becomes comparatively easy. With something

they want to do and see a reason for doing, what latent capacity there is in their limited mentality is aroused and stimulated, and the results are usually surprisingly good. "When a child wants to do a thing, a most important step has been taken towards its accomplishment."

2. Rewards are of more value as incentives than punishments. Punishments often actually increase the chances of a repetition of the act because of the way in which they focus the attention of the child upon the act. On the other hand, rewards for good conduct, by turning the child's mind in that direction, are conducive of more good conduct. Punishment for bad conduct can therefore usually with great advantage be entirely supplanted by incentives to good conduct. At Vineland they have a system of grouping children according to their "dependableness." The most dependable groups have the most privileges, the least dependable the fewest privileges. "An increase of dependableness in any child is immediately rewarded by a transfer to one of the more dependable groups. In the case of a falling off, the culprit goes back, not as a punishment but as a logical result of unreliability —a simple process that even the dullest seem able to grasp."

3. Happiness must be used as the basis of all the work and government—as an intensely practical working force in the lives of these mental deficients. And since a sense of individual importance is known to be one of the essentials of happiness, means must be continually employed to develop in each child a proud sense of individuality. In the Vineland institution, no uniform is worn for this reason and each child is permitted to exercise, under judicious guidance, its own tastes in dress. As the size of the school forbids the observance of individual birthdays, the teachers have adopted the expedient of having one big party every month for all of the children whose birthdays occur during the month. And once each week an opportunity is given to every child, even the dullest, to show what he can do best.

4. Amusement must form an important part of their schooling. Games, athletics, camping parties, pets, garden plots, tramps through the woods and by the streams, must be utilized not for amusement merely but as an important part of the educational equipment. To this end these things need to be systematically taught and done. Whatever develops muscular coördination, they say at Vineland, tends to develop brain power also. And that which attracts and amuses can nearly always be made the basis of important instruction.

5. The formal instruction of mental defectives must also center around the activities involved in vocational work. Not only the play activities, but the more serious training of the mind and the hand to make and to do, must be made the center of its instruction. Children are always more or less interested in the things they see about them, and are ever ready to learn and to make when they can see the connection between symbol and reality.

6. Laboratory tests for mental capacity and the weighing and the measuring that reveal the physical development of the child are a necessity in the proper training of these unfortunates. Such information is of immediate service in the treatment of the defective child, and, combined with a life history of the child and its ancestors for several generations, may be made to reveal laws and standards that are of service in determining the kind and degree of training that are likely to give the most satisfactory results not only for the abnormal child but for measuring the mental capacity and proper treatment of all children.

The Binet Tests.—An article in the November issue of the *Journal of Experimental Pedagogy* calls attention to certain revisions in the tests for the measurement of intelligence that were designed by Mr. Binet and Dr. Simon. After speaking of tests that have been discarded as unsatisfactory and of tests that have been changed to a higher or lower standard of age, the writer, Miss Katha-

rine L. Johnston, classifies the revised list as follows (in each case the ability to accomplish a majority of the things asked for indicates that the subject has reached the stage of development of a normal child of the age indicated at the head of the tests):

THREE YEARS

1. Point to nose, eyes, mouth.
2. Repeat two numbers.
3. Enumerate objects in a picture.
4. Give family name.
5. Repeat a sentence of six syllables.

FOUR YEARS

1. Give sex.
2. Name familiar objects, *e.g.* key, knife, penny.
3. Repeat three numbers.
4. Comparison of two lines.

FIVE YEARS

1. Comparison of two boxes of different weight.
2. Copy of a square.
3. Repetition of a sentence of ten syllables.
4. Counting four pennies.
5. Arranging in order the two pieces of an oblong card.

SIX YEARS

1. Distinction between morning and evening.
2. Definition by use.
3. Copy of a diamond shape.
4. Counting thirteen pennies.
5. Æsthetic comparison.

SEVEN YEARS

1. Right hand, left ear.
2. Description of a picture.
3. Performance of three separate commissions.

EIGHT YEARS

1. Comparing two things from memory.
2. Counting from twenty back to 0.
3. Features missing in face (a series of drawings of faces with some one feature missing in each).
4. Exact information as to date.
5. Repeat five numbers.

NINE YEARS

1. Giving change out of a quarter.
2. Definition of two things in common use.
3. Naming all the coins.
4. Enumeration of the months.
5. Replying to easy questions.

TEN YEARS

1. Arranging five boxes in order
2. Copying figures from memory.
3. Criticism of sentences containing absurdities.
4. Replying to difficult questions.
5. To put three words into two sentences.

TWELVE YEARS

1. Rejection of the suggestions made by lines.
2. To put three words into one sentence.
3. To say more than sixty words in three minutes.
4. Abstract definitions.
5. Arranging words in order.

FIFTEEN YEARS

1. Repetition of seven numbers.
2. Rhymes.
3. Repetition of a sentence of twenty-six syllables.
4. Interpretation of a picture.
5. Problem of incidents and their meaning.

COST OF EDUCATION

There is a marked change of attitude in regard to expenditures for educational purposes becoming evident everywhere. While economy in the use of school funds is both expected and demanded, it is the kind of economy in which we are learning that only the best is the cheapest. As society continues to invest its funds in the nurture of its young people, it learns that it must take fewer and fewer chances of failure even with the weakest and most unpromising of its individual members. Hence it is not so much a question these days whether we can afford to improve and extend educational opportunities as it is a

question whether we can afford to do without such efforts. Fortunately, the friends of education are meeting with less and less opposition in their efforts to secure money for education. The work of securing liberal appropriations for the schools is now mainly one of making known as clearly as possible their needs. And one of the best ways yet devised for that purpose is to exhibit in as concrete a form as possible what the schools are doing and what the schools and the community need in the way of instructive help.

Budget Exhibit.—The school needs to have its work and its wants intelligently compared with other public interests. The success of the Budget Exhibit held in New York in October, 1910, led to a similar exhibit in 1911. These exhibits are made the means of graphically explaining the duties and the workings of the various city departments, with the efforts of these departments to secure economical administration. But probably the greatest benefit derived from them is the better grasp of municipal government and the relative needs of its various departments, with an appreciation of their problems and difficulties, that the exhibits have developed. In the New York exhibit, the work and the needs of the department of Education were portrayed with especial clearness. Statistical charts, diagrams, exhibitions of furniture and supplies—all marked with their cost to the city; photographs and models illustrating the various school activities; and both the actual and relative amount of the budget granted and the money needed by the schools were clearly portrayed. A particularly valuable part of the exhibit was the one illustrating the additional things and improvements that could be secured by making larger appropriations for education.

Comparative Increase.—The average annual expenditure on the army and navy of the United States for the 8 years succeeding the Spanish War was $185,400,000. For the 8 years preceding this war, it was only $51,500,000;

thus showing an average annual increase of 260 per cent. As the increase in expenditure for public education during that same period was approximately only 60 per cent, it can readily be seen how much stronger was the appeal for the material defence of the nation than the appeal for its intellectual and moral defence. This, of course, is only a general statement which is subject to some modification, but it does emphasize a general truth that needs to be kept in mind when the question of needed expenditure for the proper education of the nation-in-training is under consideration. It is much easier to secure liberal amounts for the outward defence than for the inward strength of a nation. The need of providing for public safety is fundamental, the protection of that exceedingly sensitive thing known as "National dignity" is always popular, and it is very evident that people do not realize as they should that, without inward strength, outward defence is greatly weakened and, on the whole, of little true value. At least for the children, the young of the nation-in-training, our vision of need and possibility should develop more rapidly along educational lines than along warlike lines.

The Corn Specials.—Nowhere is it more unbusinesslike to spend less than is needed for good work than in education. Probably no clearer and more practical answer to the critics who decry the great increase in the amounts spent for educational purposes can be found than in the work of the specially equipped trains that are being sent out by railroads, agricultural colleges, and experiment stations for the instruction of farmers. While the cost of fitting up, sending out, and maintaining these trains and their workers, means no light expense, results that show an increase of even one bushel of corn or wheat per acre in States where the yield runs up into the millions, give increased returns that would pay for a great many special trains. A good illustration of this was recently furnished in the State of Iowa. In the year 1910,

the tests revealed the fact that much of the corn reserved for planting did not germinate strong. Out of some 800 samples tested, it was found that only about 66 per cent was well fitted for planting. This meant that if the farmers pursued their usual course the greatest corn-producing State in the Union would be filled with hungry mouths before the next crop could be harvested. And more than that, the Chicago stock-yards would not be filled with well-fed cattle and the whole country would be facing a meat famine with its attendant increase in prices.

But by the time the farmers were at work, two special trains were in their midst spreading the gospel of germination tests to detect the worthless corn. Although only about one-fourth of the 40,000 farmers who attended the lectures in these trains are known to have followed instructions, the one week's work of these corn trains increased the crop in Iowa for that year 10 per cent, which represented an increased value of over a half million dollars.

SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

The sentiment is spreading that the kind of conservation that is of the most importance to a people is the conservation of human time and effort. This is after all the most valuable and the most limited of our natural resources. It is also the resource that possesses the greatest possibilities for human welfare. And when this conservation of time and effort has to do with the development of the growing child, the outlooks for success and happiness are beyond all estimate. This, no doubt, accounts for the avidity with which new ideas and principles for conserving time and effort are seized, examined and tested by the people. Probably nothing since the great change from hand to machine labor began has so aroused the interest of the industrial and business world as the various plans that have arisen within the last few years for the application of science to their management.

Scientific Management

Mr. Frederick W. Taylor of the Midvale Steel Works of Philadelphia is the author of the system which is attracting so much attention under the title of "Scientific Management." The principles of management which he has so successfully evolved and put into practice after some twenty-six years of careful thought, experiment, and observation, are so clear and sensible that one wonders why they were not long ago put into practical use along all lines of combined human endeavor. Mr. Taylor enumerates these principles as follows:

Principles

1. Determine accurately by scientific analysis the elements of each piece of work and decide how it can best be done.

2. Select men who are fitted for the work—even for the lowest kinds—and train them in the way that has been determined to be the best way of doing that task.

3. By adequate supervision and a system of payment which furnishes an incentive, make sure that employees practice the best methods all the time.

4. Divide the work between the management and the men so that the management does all the work which it can do better than the men.

Mr. Arthur W. Page, writing for the *World's Work* for February, 1911, gives detailed explanations of some of Mr. Taylor's methods as they have been put into practice. For example, at a plant in which 600 men were employed at shovelling sand, coal, ashes, etc., Mr. Taylor made a careful study of shovelling. He found that shovels that held a 21 pound load of each of these materials were best adapted to handling a large amount of material and that, at a normal speed, a man would handle more in a day if his shovel held this amount than with any other size. A shovel holding a lighter load induced too high a rate of speed, and one encouraging a heavier load proved too great a strain on the man. He also ascertained how much

more quickly a man could use his shovel if the material rested on an iron floor or on a wooden floor than if it lay upon the ground. This Mr. Page gives as an illustration of the first principle.

In accordance with the second principle, Mr. Taylor had the shovellers instructed one by one how to work and how fast to work. He then placed them in small gangs, each with a foreman to keep on teaching them and to break in new recruits. "It has long been known in the army that you can train men to take a 30 inch step at the rate of 120 steps to the minute so that they will do it with ease and regularity. There is a commissioned officer there to every five men to see that all are instructed and that instructions are carried out. This is the principle of finding out the best way to do a thing and then train men to do it that way.

The third principle was made effective by Mr. Taylor by the "bonus" system of payment. If a man merely shovelled in his own way he received $1.15 per day, the regular rate prevailing. But if he profited by the teaching and worked as instructed he was paid $1.85 per day or a bonus of 70 cents. And this bonus proved in the end to be a saving to the company, because of the greater efficiency of the service, as well as the greater amount accomplished.

In carrying out the fourth principle, Mr. Taylor found it necessary to build a tool-house and to provide eight different kinds of shovels—some for ashes, some for coal, some for sand, etc. A planning department was created to determine what work was to be performed each day and by what men. This department gave each man a card each morning on which was recorded where he was to go, what he was to do, and how long it ought to take him. This planning work was done by specialists who knew at the end of the day just what had been accomplished by each man. Some of the results accomplished are amazing to persons who have not realized the benefits of careful investigation and well-regulated system in work. In case

of the plant employing the 600 shovellers, the savings effected by Mr. Taylor's "Scientific Management" were as follows: The number of laborers was reduced from 600 to 140; the average number of tons handled each day per man was increased from 16 to 59; while the average daily earnings were increased from $1.15 to $1.88 and the average cost of handling a ton was reduced from 72 cents to 33 cents—the 33 cents including the wages of the members of the planning department, the timekeepers, etc.

"This had been accomplished without overworking the men, for one fundamental idea underlying 'scientific management' is that the men who are trained be induced to stay permanently, and this could not be done if they were overworked." It is but natural that this new idea should meet with the opposition of misunderstanding, established custom, and self-interest; but competition is likely to compel its general adoption in the business and industrial worlds.

Scientific Management and the Schools

This is the story as it pertains to business management. What proportions the waste resulting from injudicious and ineffective management of school affairs would assume, could it be reduced to figures, is beyond estimate. What it might represent in loss of human efficiency, in depriving the helpless children of becoming all that they might become, and in retarding the great tide of human progress and happiness, is not pleasant to contemplate. On the other hand, the tremendous possibilities of a careful study of effective school administration and a fearless demand for the enactment and enforcement of what such a study reveals, should arouse every friend of the School to a more hopeful and persistent activity. While there are limitations to what education can do, it still remains largely true as Kant said a century ago that "Man can become man only through education; he is nothing but what education makes him."

Efficiency Tests.—The influence of the inquiries into efficiency that have been started by such movements as that of Scientific Management are already bearing fruit in regard to the school. The widespread discussion called forth by the educational features of the recent charter obtained by New York City represents but one of the many serious inquiries into educational affairs that are going on all over our country. Paul H. Hanus, who was given charge of the comprehensive inquiry into school matters in New York City, had previously made a study of the schools of Montclair, N. J. The National Bureau of Education has recently published the results of a month's study of the schools of Baltimore; special reports have been made of the business managment of the schools of St. Louis and Cleveland; and Commissioner Cheney of Connecticut is securing important tests of the educational machinery of that state. These expert efficiency tests to discover educational waste and to promote the general interests of education are entirely in line with what is going on in the industrial world and should be hailed by the friends of education as "good business." There is one caution to be observed, however, in all investigations of the part of educational matters that pertains to the work of instruction that does not apply to either business or industry, and that is the difficulty of measuring the fruits of the spirit which form such an important part of the work of every good teacher. These are the things which the expert educator prizes most highly and yet he never endeavors to measure them by rule of thumb. While general statements can well be made about them, the whole after life of the pupil is the only safe efficiency test to apply to them.

Cautions

There are two sides to all administration whether it be in the business world or in the educational world. These are the mechanical side and the human side. Although, in education, the first involves questions in which human beings with their individual and

their group needs must be taken into account, after all, things are dealt with on this mechanical side in a more or less cold-blooded, logical way. And the material thus obtained is organized, joined together, into the machinery of the school. But on the human side, personality counts. And those administrators succeed best who can so touch the lives of the persons carrying out their ideas or living under their instruction as to secure their most devoted efforts and their heartiest cooperation. In school-work spiritual leadership is of greater value than anything else, although we dare no longer ignore the value of ability to grasp, organize, and administer in the more material things.

Need of Experts.—On the general question of the need of expert advice and control for success in administration, the Commissioner of Education of New York State, Doctor Draper, said, in a recent address in Rochester, "If all of the people of the State could be trained in the knowledge that work which can be well done by none but experts should be committed to experts alone, and that this applies to administrative officers and to legislators as well as to architects and engineers, the State would advance by leaps and bounds and immediately become a model for every other State in the Union."

Although many school boards are coming more and more to recognize the necessity of such expert advice and control, in many places the work of the expert is subject to a harassing interference and solicitation, on the part of his employers, which nullify much of his good work. It has even in some cases been made the means of discrediting the work of the expert. On the business side of school administration, the expert needs the counsel of the school-boards. If they are truly representative people they can also help to make clear the needs and wants of the community. But on the professional side, the expert must have a clear field in all things that he can demonstrate to be advisable and, in fact, in some things that cannot be

made clear and yet which his keener professional sense tells him are the right things to do. Such freedom enables the expert to return more than full value for his pay and, at the same time, detracts not a whit from either the value or the dignity of the school board.

Experts

On the question of the proper kind of experts to serve as supervisors of instruction for a system of schools, Doctor Draper has the following to say: "To have efficiency and power, a system of schools must have capable and universal supervision by scholarly and successful teachers, who on the one hand have the gift of just criticism, of systematic organization and inspirational leadership, and, on the other hand, are anxious to serve all the people, are above bigotry, know better than to attempt politics to protect their places, and are able to bear an independent and aggressive part in the intellectual affairs of the community they serve."

Rural Supervision

On the question of rural supervision State Superintendent J. W. Olsen of Minnesota emphasizes the following: "Since the county superintendent should be a man of scholarship as broad and with preparation as professional as that of the city superintendent, he should equip himself with a liberal education and professional training. plus that knowledge which is the result of practical contact with rural school conditions. . . . Only temporarily and accidentally can the schools of a county get beyond the ideals of its superintendent. . . . He must be able properly to form a course of study that will meet the general and individual need. . . . . It is part of the work of the county superintendent to find the best there is, not only in every child, but in every man and woman of his parish, and to use the best for the highest good of the whole . . . . He should know and be able to plan for the best in rural school architecture, including heating, lighting, ventilation, and sanitation; should be able to guide in the purchase of libraries, text-books, and apparatus; should know

the difference between good teaching and bad—how to praise the good so that it will become better, how to transform the bad to good. He should know the school laws of his state, with the opinions of constituted authority . . . . should be able so to present the needs of his schools to parents, officers, and tax-payers that they will appreciate their privilege of immediate and future reform. . . . . He must know not only how to keep aloof from local animosities, but how to use his tactful influence for the healing of neighborhood strife. . . . He should know that he cannot be a leader, cannot do his best work, without that courage that does what conscience-inspired judgment dictates, regardless of personal consequences. He should be a real forerunner of progress."

Size of School Boards.—Efficiency in management seems to be pointing very definitely to the idea that a school board should be large enough to represent the various elements interested in the school or in the schools of the system, but no larger than is necessary for that purpose. For example, if a community has parents who are interested in business, manufacturing, medicine, and law it would seem advisable to have at least one representative man from each of these occupations on the school board. Not for the purpose of having these definite lines of work all represented in the curriculum of the schools, but to give breadth of view to the legislative deliberations of the board. In the larger school systems, two representative men from each general interest serve to give stability and breadth of judgment to their particular way of looking at all educational interests. It goes without saying, of course, that only men of the highest culture and refinement that the community affords should be choser to legislate for its schools.

Two Essentials.—There are two things that are essential if the schools are to be free from the unwarranted domination and interference of outside influence. These are: (a) That those who administer the affairs of the

schools shall have control of the money necessary to conduct them efficiently, and (b) That all appointments, promotions etc., shall be from eligible lists—i. e. on the basis of merit. While such other matters as the method of appointing boards of education, school directors etc., with the size of these boards, are important, these two things are essential if the schools are to be "kept out of politics." The politicians are not interested in the use of money or appointments if the law clearly places both the control of the funds and of the appointments outside the pale of their influence. And it is well to remember that, in so far as the schools are concerned, the word "politician" should include not only all those who are striving to build up political influence but also all those who are tempted to manage things on the basis of social or religious affiliations, rather than on the basis of what is best for the schools.

Paid Boards of Education.—The old question of having members of boards of education, or of boards of school directors, paid for their services, has been brought before the attention of the general public in a very forcible way by a proposal before the legislature of the State of New York to embody this plan in a new charter for the city of New York. As the opinion of experienced educators is practically unanimous that such a plan is fraught with grave dangers for the schools, the words of President Lowell of Harvard on the question are well worth repeating. He said that such plans seem to him to be a mistake and for these reasons: "The successful conduct of the educational system of a great city depends upon its administration by permanent professional educators who are well paid, who devote their whole time, and who are not liable to removal by reason of party politics. By far the best arrangement is to have one such man at the head of the system, with others to assist and to advise him. These professional men ought to be under the control of a non-professional,

President Lowell's Opinion

unpaid body, who do not pretend to give their whole time to the work, and whose business is to keep the professional man in touch with public opinion. From experience as a member of the School Board of the city of Boston, and from the study of many governments, it seems to me that this is the only way in which satisfactory results can, in the long run, be obtained. Now the plan proposed excludes one or other of the essential elements—the professional administration of the school system or the lay control—and it may well eliminate both and make the management of the schools a football of politics. The highly salaried members of the board are very unlikely themselves to be permanent professional educators, and yet, being paid high salaries, they will be expected to devote substantially their whole time to the work, and therefore cannot commit the administration of the schools to highly paid professional men. It seems to me, therefore, that the plan is almost certain to result in inefficiency, and that the commissioners are highly likely to owe their office to political influence and to conduct the service for political objects."

In a letter to Mayor Gaynor of New York City, which was made public in the September issue of the *Educational Review*, Nicholas Murray Butler formu- Dr. Butler's Views lates some fundamental principles on the same subject that should be carefully considered by all friends of the public schools. These are as follows:

1. Members of a paid Board of Eucation, devoting their entire time to the work of the board, could have no adequate duties to perform unless they interfered with the functions and work of the Superintendent and all of the other paid professional experts who by training, experience, and entire devotion to the work are more competent to carry it on. Unless the right of initiative and recommendation rests with these experts, experimental chaos is substituted for order in the schools.

2. The proper function of a Board of Education is, not

to administer the schools in detail, but to represent in a broad, catholic, and generous spirit the public opinion of the community, to select the experts to fill the chief posts in the school system, and to sit in judgment upon their recommendations. In view of their position as the representatives of the public opinion of the community, it is their duty to check the exuberance and enthusiasm of these experts whenever they make proposals which public opinion will not sustain or beyond what the public treasury will bear. It is also their duty to spur them on whenever they seem to lag or lack in wisdom or zeal.

3. An unpaid Board of Education, together with the educational initiative of the paid expert, is the distinctively American contribution to educational administration, and is highly esteemed by European students and writers. This is the system on which our public schools have everywhere been built up. A similar system has brought a marked degree of success to most of our higher institutions of learning, where the trustees or regents correspond to the Board of Education and the president and faculty perform the functions of the paid experts.

4. It is a fallacy to assume that men and women of a higher type could be secured for a paid board than for an unpaid board. The history of American public school administration indicates that many of the best who have served unpaid on Boards of Education would not have consented to serve on paid boards. The history of our defective municipal administration has also made clear that the members of a paid board of Education would not be chosen on the basis of fitness but on a basis that would cause many a municipal school system to sink back into the deplorable condition of former years.

5. The administration of an educational institution or of a school system is quite different from the administration of an ordinary business undertaking, and this difference should never be forgotten. While the former is so largely professional, the latter is entirely commercial.

The former estimates its results in the development of beings for usefulness and happiness, the latter measures its success in dollars and cents.

Supervision of Higher Institutions of Learning

Doctor Pritchett, in the Fifth Annual Report of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, calls attention to what is unquestionably an important matter in connection with advanced education in the United States,—and that is that in each State of the Union there is need of an adequate system of educational administration and supervision of our higher institutions of learning. "It is clear from our experience of the last twenty-five years, as well as from that of other nations, that somewhere in each commonwealth there should be an educational agency dealing with the higher institutions of learning and with the secondary and elementary institutions as well, for these schools are not unrelated enterprises, but are all parts of one thing."

While provisions for this have been made in some States, "Colleges and universities have almost universally resented any inspection or scrutiny on the part of the State." In fact, it is not an unusual thing to find even the secondary schools exercising an inadvisable independence in the general system of which they form an integral part. It should always be remembered that the mere placing of colleges and high schools under a department of education does not always place them under adequate supervision. So much depends upon the adequacy of the control and supervision, if unification and efficiency are to have their best results in any system of schools, no matter how much or how little the system includes.

Supervision Resented

CHAPTER IV

DEVELOPMENTS DIRECTLY AFFECTING THE VARIOUS TYPES OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS

The Kindergarten

In the March issue of the *Ladies' Home Journal* is a criticism of the kindergarten which calls attention to things that should be avoided in kindergarten work and which, according to the writer's own statement, are avoided by some kindergartners who "have in themselves sufficient knowledge, force and judgment to nullify many of the mistakes of the system they work under." At the same time the writer leaves an impression of her general condemnation of the kindergarten. She probably did not intend this, as at the opening of her article she says, "The charges I make are not made indiscriminately against all kindergartens and all kindergartners." Of course it would be very foolish for any kindergartner to claim that the immortal Froebel had laid down infallible principles, good without modification for all time and for all stages of development, or to hold that his disciples have always planned and acted according to the insight of the needs of the little child which they might and should have had. But the impression has been gaining ground with thoughtful educators that if there is one class of instructors more than another for whom the way has been clearly blazed it has been for the kindergartners. The kindergarten, however, must not expect to be entirely exempt from being judged on the basis of the doings of its weakest interpreters, nor entirely free from the attacks of the critic who so magnifies the lesser things as to make them obscure the greater.

But, in any event, now that the education of the child is coming to be the matter of greatest public interest and concern, every competent and thoughtful student and observer should have a considerate hearing in the hope that more and better may be organized and accomplished each year for the child. Therefore, whatever truth there is in what the writer of the *Ladies' Home Journal* article, Laura Spencer Portor, herself a trained kindergartner and "a close student of childhood and child nature," says, should receive careful consideration and either lead to such a modification of the early training of the little child as will eliminate all true errors, even, if needs be, to changes in the system as it is now interpreted, or it should lead to such a raising of the standard of kindergarten work as will bar out the incompetent teacher. For Miss Portor does not hesitate to say, "The average kindergarten, then, I believe, exerts a distinctly harmful influence on the child: First, physically, by disregarding the physical needs of the child. Second, mentally by giving the child inexact impressions of real life—thus fostering in him inaccuracy and untruth. Third, spiritually, by dwarfing the child's reverence and his originality, and by making a materialist of him."

Objections

The objections on the score of health she names as bad air, nervous strain, eye-strain, fatigue; the often pernicious association, at a tender and impressionable age, of normal children with precocious, vicious, or diseased children; unnecessary exposure to infection; overstimulation, etc. None of these, it should be noted, should be permitted in the home, on the street, or in the school, and, so far as the kindergarten is concerned, they are now being properly cared for in our best modern school buildings by proper medical inspection of the children. The practice of small card pricking and card sewing and the use in all other occupations of material that is so small as to tend to produce eye-strain are no longer found in the well-managed kindergarten. Although over-

stimulation is always possible where the nervous pupil and the highly tensioned teacher come together, this will occur less frequently in the kindergarten than in the average home with its overburdened or neglectful mother. The "pernicious association" charge is not a very democratic idea and should neither be serious nor difficult of control in the well-regulated kindergarten, especially when we remember that its children are none of them over six years of age. The dissipation of energy due to a too rapid change of program, to the overstimulation and fascination of high-tension teaching, or to the lack of common sense that turns the kindergarten into a "kind of continuous performance," not unlike the rapid changes and excitement to be found in a vaudeville show, should not be tolerated and we believe is not to be found in well-supervised kindergartens. Both patience and poise are essentials in all school work and are certainly nowhere more necessary than in dealing with the little child.

In the second point Miss Portor's psychology seems to be at fault. When she criticises the kindergarten system for encouraging children to imitate animals and objects with sound and motion, or, as she says, pretending to be the thing they represent, because this is leading them away from rather than toward the real world, she forgets that the kindergarten is founded on the play instincts and in these instincts the little child is living in an ideal world. Whether in the home or in the school, he is always pretending that he is some form of animal or object and idealizing that with which he plays into something it is not. But, aside from this, the child should come into contact with a number of important real facts even in the kindergarten, and as far as these facts are developed Miss Portor is correct in insisting that they should be accurate. In her insistence, however, that there should be a formal distinction made between work and play even in the kindergarten she is again wrong in her psychology. In fact, there are strong indications that we

shall in the future make a much larger use of the play instincts in our education even higher up than the kindergarten. The development in the Boy Scout movement is probably the strongest indication of this.

In criticising the influence of the kindergarten upon the spiritual nature of the child, Miss Portor is assailing the inmost stronghold of the whole kindergarten system. For if there is one thing more than another that it is calculated to develop it should be justice, esteem, love, and reverence as they apply to nature and the whole animate world, to brothers and sisters and to others, to parents and to God. The very foundation principle of Froebel's whole system is a religious one. It states that the child's mind is fashioned in the image of God. This being true, it must have infinite possibilities which Froebel planned to prevent being warped and debased, through the instincts for activity, inquiry, and construction as they naturally show forth in the play of the child.

Although Miss Portor's article indicates things that should be avoided in the kindergarten, a fairer view of what it has accomplished, what it is, and what it should be, can be gotten from an article in the April number of the *Ladies' Home Journal.* In this Miss Elizabeth Harrison, principal of the Chicago Kindergarten College, has told in a clear and forcible manner What the Kindergarten Has Done. The following points are emphasized by Miss Harrison:

What the Kindergarten has done

"The morning talks of the kindergarten long ago opened the eyes of thoughtful teachers to the value, in language work, of informal conversations with children upon topics in which they were interested and concerning which they had some definite knowledge." For they have led to a regular "story hour" in each week's program of our most advanced schools and have developed "The National Story-Tellers' League." The kindergarten excursions to near-by places of interest have proved so valuable that it is now a common sight to see teachers and chil-

dren of other classes do the same in order to view at first hand the activities and beauties of the world around them. The emphasis that the kindergarten has placed upon such real experiences as planting seeds and caring for plants has greatly encouraged nature-study and school-garden work. One of the great values of such work is the contact with Nature's mysteries which awakens a spirit of reverence in the child's heart. The kindergarten has demonstrated the aid of concentration and self expression as it is given by hand work and has thereby emphasized the value and necessity of simple constructive work in the grades. The work with "the kindergarten gifts" has helped to give meaning and purpose to the "busy hour" work in the primary grades that so often has been disjointed, haphazard, and senseless. "Music, which has played so important a part in the kindergarten, and which creates so much of its atmosphere of joy and self-forgetfulness, is slowly but surely becoming a part of the daily exercises of the average schoolroom." Its influences upon play and the playground movements have been marked, especially along the lines of the kindergarten idea that "play is an important factor in the education of the child." Its dramatic play is finding counterparts in the presentation of pageants and the representation of ideal heroes and heroines, in the rhythmic exercises of graceful gymnastic movements and the folk dances that are doing so much in large cities to keep young people from going to the vice-breeding dance-halls.

But especially has it exerted a valuable influence upon child-study by insisting that it is the child and his development that are the all-important things in education, and that the curriculum is secondary to this. The psychological view of man on which the kindergarten activities are based—namely, that "it is the nature of mind to outer—or utter—itself in order that it may fully realize itself," has greatly emphasized in other school work the "education by doing" idea. "You and I know from per-

sonal experience that the more fully we express an idea the clearer it grows to us, that the more we do the more capable we become." The kindergarten looks upon the child as containing, in embryo, infinite possibilities; therefore, it constantly seeks to have the outer expression of the inner self, knowing that through it there is possible the self-creating of a transformed being.

Three Principles

Miss Harrison states the three principles on which the kindergarten is based to be as follows: 1. The first foundation stone of the kindergarten is religious. It states that the child's mind, being "the image of God," must have in it infinite possibilities. 2. The second proposition is psychological, and is based on the idea that these possibilities can be developed only by the child's own efforts, although we can help him by furnishing proper opportunities, proper encouragement, and right discipline. 3. The third principle is sociological, and asserts that the real self of the child is its highest or God-element self, which cannot be developed through mere selfish animal impulses but only through the exercise of this highest self in coöperation with other selves. "The self-activity of man manifests itself in childhood largely through play; in boyhood largely through the gaining of skill and information, or, in other words, through preparation; and in manhood largely through work, which, if heartily entered into and skilfully done, becomes as enjoyable as the child's play, because it is fully as free an utterance of the higher self as is the play of the child."

In conclusion Miss Harrison admits that the kindergarten has made mistakes, but says: "All such mistakes are part of the transition stage; they are conditions that are changing rapidly for the better, and we should sincerely thank our critics who have pointed them out to us." But these mistakes she regards as minor matters as compared with two great things that the kindergarten has accomplished. First, the recognition of the sacred right

of the child to unfold and develop his original and creative side. Second, the great truth that has come through the lowly door of serving the little child—namely, the right exercise of that divinest of all gifts, motherhood. And the good kindergarten is second only to the mother.

Maria Montessori

An interesting article in the May, 1911, number of *McClure's* describes the work of Maria Montessori, the Italian educator who has established in the City of Rome a method of teaching little children that should have valuable suggestions for the kindergarten and the teacher of beginners in the grades. The system is based largely upon scientific applications of the sense of touch, the most fundamental of all of the senses. The article is written by Josephine Tozier, who speaks of the educational advantages of the methods pursued from personal investigation of the work of Miss Montessori.

Miss Tozier introduces her subject by giving a brief account of The Wild Boy of Aveyron, who when he was 12 years of age was caught by some French hunters in the year 1789 and placed in charge of Dr. Itard, physician to the National Institution for the Deaf and Dumb. Although the boy, being an idiot, did not yield to Dr. Itard's methods, the efforts to instruct him, Doctor Itard being a man of keen insight, led to valuable knowledge as to the best method of dealing with cases of unawakened or defective intelligence. Doctor Itard's methods were passed on to his pupil, Edward Seguin, who became a noted specialist in the treatment of defectives. Owing to political troubles in France, Seguin came to New York early in the 60's, where he exercised a marked influence on the training of defective children in America until the time of his death in 1880. It was a book published by Seguin before he left Paris that suggested to Maria Montessori the methods that she has been applying so success-

fully. Although she was graduated as Doctor of Medicine by the University of Rome, she had already become so much interested in the mentally deficient child that, when Seguin's book fell into her hands, she found in it both stimulation and confirmation of her views. During a Pedagogic Congress in Turin in 1898, she expounded her views so ably that the Minister of Public Instruction invited her to give a course of lectures to the teachers of Rome who were interested in the treatment of backward children. These lectures led to the founding of a school well named the "mind-straightening school" because in it were gathered children from all of the asylums of Rome, as well as numerous special private cases.

The results of this school were regarded as marvelous, for Miss Montessori taught defectives sent to her to read and write to a degree which enabled them to "pass the same examinations that normal children of their age were expected to pass at the public schools." Her explanation of this was that "They had been aided in their psychic development, while the normal children had been hampered and depressed." Her experiences soon led Maria Montessori to desire to apply her methods to the work of normal children; so she left this school and reëntered the University of Rome as a student of experimental psychology. During this period she visited all of the primary schools within her reach and spent a great deal of time considering the methods employed in the general instruction of young children. After seven years of this work she was afforded the opportunity of testing her plans on an extended scale in the infant schools opened in connection with a social betterment endeavor which was being made in one of the tenement districts of the city. This district had become one of the most crowded, unsanitary, and vicious "warrens of the poor" known in the City of Rome. In this district children were growing up without light, without air, and in precocious familiarity with every form of crime and degradation.

Here she opened her infant schools or "Houses of Childhood" as she named them. The scope and influence of these institutions are well indicated in the rules under which they are controlled by the organization having them in charge. The following are well worth adoption in any "House of Childhood" no matter where it may be located:

"House of Childhood"

"In the House of Childhood attention will be paid to the education, the health, and the physical and moral development of children, by means of lessons and exercises adapted to their age.

"All children of the block (of tenements) between the ages of three and seven have the right of admission to the House of Childhood.

"The parents of children attending the House of Childhood pay no contribution whatever; but they assume the following imperative obligations: (a) To show the greatest respect and deference toward the directress and staff of the House of Childhood, and to coöperate with the directress in promoting the education of the children. At least once a week mothers can speak to the directress, reporting their observations of their children at home and receiving from the directress notes and suggestions for the good of the children."

It is an inflexible rule of these schools that the teachers must keep in constant touch with the parents and that the parents must be permitted to come at any time to see "how their children are getting on." Maria Montessori's claim is that in this way "the school is placed in the home; it becomes part of the collective property—and the feeling of collective property is new, and sweet, and profoundly educative."

The most conspicuous of her "triumphs" is that of teaching quite young children first to write and then to read without putting the smallest strain upon their faculties. Her method, as will be seen, inverts the usual order in which these accomplishments are acquired, and she believes that she has pedagogic warrant for the inversion. "At

the very root of her method lies what may be called the rediscovery of the ten fingers. Put on the track by Seguin, she realized that the sense of touch, the basis of all the other senses, was the great interpreter of vision and guide to accuracy of perception. It was at the same time the earliest developed of the faculties and the first to be dulled if left uncultivated. She found that the finger-tips of children are almost unbelievably sensitive, but that, in the absence of careful training, they begin to lose this sensitiveness after the age of six."

Sense of Touch

The first step in her method, then, is to teach children to "see with their fingers" and in this way to cultivate a delicately retentive muscular memory. This not only accomplishes a desirable end in itself but also minimizes the strain placed upon the eyes and upon the brain. The education of the sense of touch begins as soon as the child enters the school. He is taught to wash his hands carefully in cold water with soap and then to plunge them into warm clear water. In addition to this the first and second fingers are plunged first into cold then into warm water and the child is led to notice and know the difference. The discrimination between rough and smooth then follows. To learn this, two cards are placed before the child. One of these is of coarse black sand-paper; the other has a surface of satin-paper. The teacher, taking the child's hand in hers, passes the tips of its first and second fingers over the smooth card, being careful to draw them from left to right for the sake of the muscular memory to be developed. As the tiny fingers like the feel of it, they will continue to move after the teacher releases the hand. And, when the child through pleasure looks up smiling, the teacher says slowly and distinctly "smooth"—not one word more, not even a word of endearment for fear of confusing the child. "To confuse is to tax the brain, and that is a cardinal sin." If the child continues to feel the card, the teacher repeats the word. But if its curiosity leads it to look longingly

toward the other card, the two fingers are passed gently over it and the teacher says "rough". This may be repeated. Then the cards are placed side by side and the teacher says, "Give me the smooth." Then, "Give me the rough." The cards are again placed on the table and "What is that?" says the teacher as she points to the satin card. "Smooth" replies the pupil. "And this?" says the teacher. And "rough" is the reply of the child, proud of knowing so much. If the child makes a mistake, it is left until the next lesson to find out for itself unless it should in the meantime discover or ask for help. "Why correct the child? If she does not succeed in associating the name with the object, the only way of making her succeed is to repeat at once the action of the sensorial stimulus and the word to be associated with it: that is, to repeat the lesson. But the fact of the child having made the mistake implies that at that moment she is not disposed to the psychic association which you desire to promote in her; hence it is best to choose another moment."

In Maria Montessori's view all education is auto-education; and we must not rush to the help of the puzzled child and thus run the chance of depriving it at once of the joy and the educative influence of resolving difficulty. This same idea applies to discipline; her ideal being "discipline for liberty." And the only restriction enforced is that the child must not use his freedom to hurt or incommode others. "He must be taught to distinguish between good and evil, but not, as in the conventional discipline, to confound good with immobility, and evil with activity." As the classes of her schools are small, of course there can be a broader freedom than is possible in the average class-room of forty pupils. However, because of the interest, little discipline is necessary in the Houses of Childhood. When it is necessary, isolation is relied upon—isolation and the idea that the child is not well. But in the isolation the child is permitted to face the others and to have whatever he wants to play with. The fact that

he is regarded as needing special care which the others do not need, because they are working and acting more like men, usually works a conversion that is deep and lasting. But such discipline must be handled with judgment and calmness—"tranquil nerves in authority beget tranquil nerves in subjection." As a rule children are quiet and good if they are doing what they like to do.

For the purpose of making the little children self-helpful in the home, they are provided with light embroidery frames having bands of cloth on them that are to be tied together with bows of ribbons. Or they are given strips of cloth or leather, with buttonholes and buttons or hooks and eyes on alternate strips, so that the child may practice buttoning and unbuttoning—an exercise in which they take so much pride that mother has some trouble at home to keep them from buttoning up the whole family. There are also exercises for laces and for hooks and eyes. As the materials used in these exercises vary, the sense of touch is all the time under training. One of the most valuable exercises of the schools is furnished by thin wooden tablets each with a geometric figure such as a triangle, a circle, an oval, a square, a rectangle, or an octagon in its center. These geometric figures can be lifted out of their various receptacles because each has a button attached to its center. The teacher lifts out a triangle and passes the ends of her two fingers around it. "Touch it so," she says. This is promptly done, and she then pulls all of the figures out of their places and asks the child to put them back into their proper places. Without any assistance the child starts to comply but endeavors to place the oval where the circle belongs. Having received the suggestion of testing with the finger, the child runs the two fingers around the oval and then around the inside of the various vacant places until one is found that corresponds in feel. This is done with the others; and when all are in place the child dumps them out and does the replacing again.

Self-helpfulness

The suggestion to teach them writing came from the children themselves, Maria Montessori having been strongly prejudiced against placing the strain of learning to read and to write upon the immature brains of children under seven. But under the compulsion of their requests, as well as those of their parents, the inspiration came to her to use the sense of touch as a means of teaching writing. Accordingly, she prepared written letters of large size and of coarse black sandpaper pasted on very smooth square white cards. "The letters were upright, in the clear round script now popular, and each letter was finished with a little tail to join it to the next letter." These were afterwards supplemented by numerous letters cut out of paper for laying on a table when the children tried to make words. The vowels were of pink and the consonants all of blue. A little strip of white board pasted on the back of each letter just where the guiding line in writing would come prevented such errors as placing the bottom of the loop of a *G* on the level with the base of an *O*. To secure mastery of the pencil or pen she uses the tablets with removable geometrical figures. The children trace the outlines of a circle, triangle or oval, etc., and then fill in the figures by means of a dark-blue crayon. As soon as they gain sufficient control of the pencil to do this smoothly and evenly, without letting the crayon slip beyond the outline or without cramping the fingers, they are ready to use the prepared script letters. After choosing a letter, the child's finger is drawn slowly over the sand paper outline while the name of the letter is repeated slowly and distinctly, the child in the meantime being encouraged to look carefully at the letter. Afterward the child is expected to remember this letter, and when the teacher says, "Get me *i* or *o*," or whatever he may have learned, he is able to do so.

Writing

And now comes the most surprising thing of the whole process. "Although the pen-fingers of the children are trained by filling in the geometric outlines, and though

not only their eyes but their muscles have become accustomed to some, at least, of the forms of the letters, the children do not yet know that they can write. They have, in fact, learned to write without writing." Italian being a phonetic language, it should here be stated that from the very first daily use of exercises in phonics are used for the development of good articulation and for an additional object that will now appear. On a sunshiny winter's day she was on a terrace with a number of the children. Handing a piece of chalk to a little boy of five she asked him to draw a chimney that rose from the ground near them. He threw himself down at once and drew it so well that, as is her practice, she praised him warmly. "The little fellow looked up at me, smiled, was evidently on the point of bursting into some ebullition of delight, and then cried, '*Scrivo*! *Io Scrivo*!' (I can write! I am writing!) Lying on the ground, he wrote on the pavement *mano* (hand); then, with new enthusiasm, he wrote *camino* (chimney); and as he wrote, he continued to call out, 'I am writing!' so that the other children came running to see the sight, and surrounded him staring in astonishment." This she continues was the beginning of a perfect frenzy of writing that seized the school. Not only have the children learned to write, but if the story has been well told it will also be apparent that they have also the important foundations for reading.

American teachers would know how to use the training thus secured to great advantage in teaching children how to read. But a few of Maria Montessori's devices are interesting—(1) All of the most attractive toys of the school are displayed on a table; the name of each toy is written on a piece of paper, and the folded paper placed in a bag; each child draws a paper and opens it, without allowing anyone else to see; and then if he can clearly and correctly pronounce the word written on it the scrap of paper warrants his using the toy for the remainder of the day. The success of this game is so great that the

children prefer drawing more papers to playing with the toys. (2) The blackboard is used by the teacher who silently writes questions for the children to answer or orders for them to execute. (3) A number of different commands are written on paper and distributed among the children. One of these which the writer herself observed was as follows: "Ask three of your companions who sing best to advance into the middle of the room, range them in a row, and sing with them any pretty song you choose." These papers the children take to their places and con in silence until the teacher asks, "Do you understand?" When all say "Yes," she calls on one to begin and do what he is told. Numbers are dealt with in similar ways.

In reading the accounts of Dr. Montessori's work, several questions naturally arise in one's mind. First, whether much of its excellence is not due to the strong personality of Miss Montessori herself. Second, whether there is not physical danger, or at least physical inadvisability, in endeavoring to secure skill, with very young children, in such subjects as writing, where the smaller (accessory) muscular activities rather than the larger (fundamental) are involved. Third, whether, after all, she is not merely reëmphasizing some of the fundamental principles that have been known and dwelt upon by educators for many years. However, Miss Montessori is bringing to our notice once again at least one important lesson, and that is the need of our steering as clear as possible of dead formalism in our dealing with the little child. And in all fairness to Dr. Montessori her book, "Il Metodo della Pedagogia Scientifica," should be translated into English, in order that we may know from her own words just what educational principles and ideas she is endeavoring to evolve and emphasize, before we attempt to pass final judgment upon her work. (See also *McClure's* for December, 1911, *The Fortnightly Review* for August, 1911, and a critical review in *The Survey* for Jan. 20, 1912.)

The Elementary School

COMPARISONS.—The investigation of the Boston schools recently made by the Finance Commission of that city has made possible some interesting comparisons. For example, it has shown that the cost of education in Boston now is relatively lower than it was in 1751, when one-third of the entire revenue of the city was used for school purposes. In 1845, the committee on annual examinations in Boston reported to the Board of Education, "It is very difficult to believe that in the Boston schools there should be so many children in the first class (the highest) unable to answer so many questions; that there should be so many absurd answers; so many errors—spelling, in grammar, and in punctuation." In 1852, the committee on examinations attempted to answer the charge "that the public schools of the city are deteriorating, that our teachers are becoming faithless to the sacred trust reposed in them, that our children (and here follow statements of what some regarded as great expenditures) are not receiving any adequate return for all this outlay, but are sent forth with only the husks of an education." In 1854, this same committee, in speaking of spelling, said: "The average number of errors in a list of words in ordinary use selected for the purpose of examination was far greater than anticipated and shows the necessity of an increased attention to this subject." They then make the statement: "Mistakes in simple numeration, addition, subtraction, multiplication and division are among those most frequently made even by advanced pupils."

In 1859, the accusation was made that children were overtasked; and many of the charges and terms then used bear a familiar sound—"high-pressure system," "forcing system," "cramming machine," "disastrous to the bodily and mental health of the pupils," etc. Even as far back as 1875, workers in the schools had to face the comment that in scholarship and fitting for life they were not doing

as well as they did in former times. Notice this from the School Committee's report for 1875: "It is common to hear unfavorable contrast drawn betwixt the scholarship and fitness for practical life of graduates of the present and former times when studies were fewer and expenditures smaller." In 1883, a similar charge of failure to meet the needs of the people was made by the Governor of Massachusetts and laid at the doors of the Boston schools in particular.

Following this historical comparison the Commission calls attention to the fact that, while charges against the present school system undoubtedly have an element of truth in them, "the real question is whether the schools with their limitations are making as much as can reasonably be expected of the varied material with which they are obliged to deal." They also state that, considering that educational efficiency demands: (a) Effective supervision; (b) good school buildings; (c) a curriculum broad enough to meet the needs of the community, both cultural and vocational; (d) well-selected text-books and supplies; (e) capable and well-trained teachers; (f) a small quota of pupils to a teacher; and (g) healthy children physically capable of receiving instruction—"At no period in the history of the Boston schools have these essentials been more fully recognized and cared for than to-day; no one will dispute that they are essentials and no one would be willing to give them up, yet they are the true reasons for the heavy cost of schools."

Things Commended

The Commission commends certain important things that have had a fair trial in Boston. These are:

1. The financial independence of the schools. This is after a trial of 13 years.

2. It commends the small School Committee (Board of Education) of 5 members as compared with the old committee of 24 members.

3. It commends the placing of the administration of the schools in charge of the Superintendent and his Assistants; for by this plan a very large share of individual freedom and initiative is possible to those who are especially trained for educational work, "while providing the additional advantage of intelligent oversight of the entire system by the Board of Superintendents (the Superintendent and his Assistants) with the Superintendent as its responsible head."

4. The Commission found that directors of special branches—drawing, music, school hygiene, etc.—"supply a need which is not otherwise met . . . Moreover, most, if not all, of them are essential parts of a well-considered administrative system."

5. One of the most interesting portions of their report is that concerning the so-called "fads and fancies" which they say had been forced into the curriculum as a result of a public demand and, what is more important, have continued in the curriculum because of this demand. The fads and fancies referred to are sewing, cooking, drawing, music, etc., and they feel sure that "such and other costly subjects could not survive for any length of time as against other pressing needs unless they possessed real value." There is, of course, the deeper and farther reaching justification of these subjects because of their relation to a well organized preparation for life, that the Commission did not enter into in their report.

6. The Commission found that according to the ratings of teachers 75 per cent of them were good. This is a condition, assuming that the marking was correct, of which Boston should be proud. The report discusses with more or less approval the plans for promotional examinations of teachers, also the methods of rating them, as well as such matters as leave of absence for them on half pay, the age limit of service for teachers, and the various pension regulations. They also endorsed the new method of appointing teachers.

7. The Commission emphasized the propriety of building good school buildings rather than ornate ones, and said, "No effort should be made hereafter to erect monumental buildings for schools, but the aim should be to provide plain and substantial structures at moderate cost." That they should be sanitary and entirely safe in case of fire goes without saying.

8. In conclusion, the Commission found that "There is very little opportunity for retrenchment in school expenditures. Although the money expended annually is large, the purposes for which the money is spent are definitely fixed by statute or schedule or by the actual necessities of the situation; for example, salaries of instructors, janitors, and subordinates are established upon carefully prepared schedules which can not in justice be reduced. To meet them is required each year four-fifths of the total appropriation." Other expenditures are then dealt with item by item. In connection with the expenditure for books, the important fact that books should not be used "after they have become unduly worn or unclean" was emphasized.

The Finance Commission seems to have made a careful and fair, as well as a thorough, investigation. They employed experts for the problems requiring expert knowledge; they held many public hearings in order to give full opportunity to all who had criticisms or suggestions to offer; and they were careful and thorough in their examination of the officers and employees of the board. The results of their work, especially in the various suggestions growing out of it, should be helpful to other school systems, just as it is a tribute to the good work of the Boston schools.

The Gary System of Schools

The person who would introduce new ideas into educational practice must face two serious difficulties: (1) the difficulty of giving a definite scientific proof of the

correctness of his theories; (2) the practical difficulty of running counter to long years of established belief and practice. The first difficulty arises from the fact that education rests upon such obscure sciences as psychology and sociology; the second to the fact that education, as we know it to-day, is so largely founded upon custom and tradition. There are certain more practical things in education, however, that yield so readily to objective demonstration that the educator finds less difficulty in convincing the public of the wisdom of his course, provided he meets with success. Such are the kind of school work that offers an appeal to the maximum number of pupils and which tends to prevent pupils from leaving school, and such a use of the school plant as either lowers expense or greatly widens its usefulness. These ideas have been put into service in the schools of Gary, Indiana, by Superintendent William A. Wirt, and have attracted a great deal of attention because they represent one of the most successful efforts yet made for placing a school system under modern scientific management.

A good popular description of the Gary schools was published in *Hampton's Magazine* for June. The article was written by Rheta Childe Dorr. After referring to the distressing conditions that exist because so few pupils can be induced to remain in school until their formal education is more nearly complete, Miss Dorr says: "In Gary, Indiana, they have worked out a school system which solves the problem of how to keep children in school. They have simply devised means of giving the children the kind of education they want. Not what they think they want, but what they actually do want." Let us see what it is.

Gary

Gary is the creation of the United States Steel Corporation, which, on the southern tip of Lake Michigan where it touches the shores of Indiana, has, within the last five years, "erected a ten-mile stretch of steel works, furnaces, foundries, coke-ovens, repair

shops. The city of 25,000 people growing up around these is filled with workmen representing 28 nationalities from all parts of the globe, and the education of their children therefore presents problems of peculiar difficulty." But the city, because its affairs center around and are so completely under the control of one interest, also presented an exceptional field for the favorable trial of new things in education. It was under these conditions that Mr. Wirt, who had been superintendent of the schools of Bluffton, Indiana, and had educational ideas of his own, was elected superintendent of the new schools of the new city by a board of education that agreed to "allow him freedom to develop the school system of his dreams."

Some of the things he has already accomplished are stated to be as follows: There is little tendency for the pupils of Gary schools to drop out. The majority remain until the eleventh year because they want to remain to get what the schools have to offer them. "Not only do these Gary children go to school more years than children elsewhere, they go to school more hours every day. They are in school from half past eight in the morning until four and five in the afternoon. On Saturdays part of the school plant is open from nine until five, and a large number of children attend." The Steel Corporation could deal successfully with its manufacturing and engineering problems, but they could not civilize their heterogeneous population. This Mr. Wirt, however, is accomplishing in the schools, for it would be difficult to distinguish the "children of immigrants, most primitive in type, illiterate, non-English speaking," from most American children. A fundamental idea with him has been to build on the old-time systems of occupation and responsibility, that did so much toward developing ability and character at the time when the home was the center of industrial life.

Value of Habit

"To have learned to *know* the right thing to do," says Mr. Wirt, "is not character, but to have *formed the habit* of doing the right thing is character. When the

home lost the opportunity for industrial training of its children, it also lost its power for efficient moral and general character training, because they were inseparably linked with the industrial training." The boy on the farm worked until he was tired and the novelty wore off. To keep on working required an exercise of his will power which cultivated within him the perseverance and strength of will that are so essential to character. Nor was he allowed to run idle for three months of the year, nor given the opportunity to pick up a haphazard training from three o'clock until dark every afternoon. These are some of the reasons why Mr. Wirt keeps the Gary children in school from eight-thirty until four or five each day.

But we must not think that they are at their desks all of this time. "In the first place, no child in Gary has a desk. He has a locker where he keeps his outer clothing and his books. The desks belong to the children who happen at the time to be using them." A double set of classes occupy each room in the Gary school buildings—one class uses the room while the other is engaged in the workrooms, in the gardens, or upon the playground. In this way Gary children are provided for in approximately half the number of school buildings that would otherwise have to be maintained. But this does not indicate that any false economy is practiced at Gary; for everything is done to enable the children to live in an ideal world, "doing a number of the things all children love to do, and ought to do, to acquire character." "They live in a veritable child world, a world in which there is plenty of work to do, but the work is so pleasingly mingled with play and exercise that no one is ever bored or wearied. About three hours each day are devoted to formal work in reading, writing, arithmetic, and history. About three and a half hours each day are given to manual training, natural science, literature, music, and formal gymnastic work. The rest of the time is given to free activities in the gymnasium,

swimming-pools, and in the five-acre playground. The manual-training shops and the school laboratories are open during these free periods, and many of the older pupils choose to work in them alone, pursuing some problem or working out some ideal of their own."

Another idea of which Mr. Wirt has made free use is the subconscious education, or education from environment, that the less advanced pupils get from seeing the more advanced at work. This is accomplished by permitting, for example, the little first-reader children to have their simple manual-training exercises of building doll houses, modeling in clay, and the like in close proximity to the manual-training shops for the seventh and eighth grades. The fifth-grade children work at their botany and elementary science in the high-school laboratory. The elementary and advanced chemistry students work in the same room and use the same apparatus. By watching others the pupil learns.

Subconscious Education

Another Gary idea is that the children must be taught by "experts." The grade teachers teach reading, writing, arithmetic, geography, and history, nothing more. All the other teaching is by these experts. Sciences are taught by specialists in science; music by music teachers; drawing by drawing teachers; vocations by vocation teachers. The children pass from one teacher to another all day. The average size of the classes in Gary is 22, thus making this specialist work more feasible. In order to bring about the proper correlation of the work—a point of weakness in all specialist and departmental work—the courses of study provide that the same subject or line of work shall, in so far as possible, be pursued at the same time by all who are dealing with any particular class.

Teaching by Experts

This teaching by experts is carried out in the high-school trade classes, which are a notable feature of the Gary schools. Here the boys, when they reach the third year in the high school, are taught the trade which each

may elect. "Their instructors are expert workmen, members of their respective trade unions. If, when they leave school, they enter the trade learned in school, the time spent in the school-shop is counted off from their apprenticeship." But the girls also have opportunity to learn a special vocation. Under expert teachers they may learn stenography, typewriting, professional bookkeeping, or printing, with the promise of other occupations as new buildings are erected, until the list is complete for both girls and boys. Nor are those who learn trades in the Gary schools turned out to seek work for themselves. Mr. Wirt has formed the closest kind of relations with the employers in Gary. Every once in a while he invites them to visit the Emerson school, the best equipped school of the city, "and gets them interested in the idea of helping children to graduate from school into life." This has developed a wonderful spirit of coöperation with the work of the schools. It has also placed at Mr. Wirt's disposal a certain number of places which enable him to say to a restless boy of 14, who desires to go to work, "All right; we will give you a job. You try work for three months. At the end of that time you will have earned some money and perhaps you will feel like coming back to the school for a while." This he usually does, and without serious loss; for "the curriculum is so arranged that the children can pick up their studies exactly where they left off. There are no groups or children held together in grades."

Finally, Mr. Wirt has planned to get the greatest possible use out of the school plant. It is in use twelve months of the year. This does not mean that teachers and pupils get no vacation, for they do. But the idea is to permit this vacation to be taken at any time of the year that necessary arrangements may make possible to be chosen. The Emerson school is also open until 10 o'clock every evening. On the basement floor is a branch of the public library; in some of the class-

Largest Use of School Plant

rooms evening school is kept in session; and the manual-training shops, the laboratories, and gymnasium are always open for use. There is also a coöperative store in this building where, at certain hours, the pupils may buy all sorts of school and play supplies from the honor boys and girls who are in charge. A savings bank, known as The Bank of Boyville, is also run on the same plans as an actual bank of the outside world. Altogether Mr. Wirt has established a system of schools in Gary of which its people may well be proud. Much that has been accomplished should be full of suggestion and promise to other places, though all that is attempted might not be feasible or advisable everywhere, even though Miss Dorr claims that "There is not a city in the United States where the Gary system could not be applied."

The High School

Mission of the High School.—Society is demanding each year more specific returns in high-school education. In a recent address William Lewis, principal of the William Penn High School of Philadelphia, outlined the mission of the modern high school in the following general terms: "There are two main arguments in defence of the public high school. One is the philanthropic motive of furnishing to all young people, at public expense, equal opportunity for personal advancement. The other is the more selfish incentive that prompts society to give better training in order that it may be more efficiently served. The last half-dozen years have seen the emphasis shifted from the first to the second of these arguments. Society, dominated as it is by modern business, wants to be sure that it is getting its money's worth. In this, as a fundamental principle of all coöperative social activity, society is right. So the efficiency test is to be applied to our educational institutions. The question, what is the best education, is not to be answered by tradition. The value of any means of education must be determined by

the efficiency of the service rendered by those who have profited by the process. With this end in view, it becomes evident that the content and the methods of secondary education must be in a constant process of readjustment. To be explicit, the subjects of study and the methods of instruction calculated to fit young women for college students and teachers twenty years ago will not suffice to fit them for business, for professions, and for the home under our new and infinitely complicated conditions of life. Hence, the William Penn High School and schools of similar aim in every community; hence, a wide variety of courses intended to meet the varying needs of individuals; hence, new methods of instruction and of school organization."

The elementary school, although it should not attempt to train for specific vocations, should so teach children that they may be able to make an intelligent choice of vocation. In the high school, on the contrary, pupils should be fitted to take advanced standing in apprenticeships for doing the world's work. "Here the girl who must soon make a livelihood may prepare to be a designer in special fields, an illustrator, a house manager, a private secretary, a dressmaker, a milliner, an infant's nurse, or perhaps a skilled cook—and she is trained in such a way that she keeps a more liberal outlook on life than the specialized worker of to-day dreams of." To-day the tendency is to teach the girl as well as the boy a definite vocation. In the high school the young people should receive a general as well as a specific training for life. Some should receive a two-years training, others a four-years course, and in all cases with the vocational training should go a liberal culture so that every one may have an avocation as well as a vocation in life—something to lift him above a deadening routine into a broader and richer kind of living. The high school of to-morrow must also provide an opportunity for a liberal education for those who desire a full scholastic training before taking

up a highly specialized training for business or industrial leadership or for a profession. And, with all, the education is to be for vigorous health as well as for liberal living.

THE SECONDARY SCHOOL AND THE COLLEGE. — The parts of our educational system should be harmoniously related. The Fifth Annual Report of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching contains a review of the present relations existing between the colleges and the secondary schools. This Report calls attention to the fact that educational developments in the United States, since the Civil War, have greatly changed the relations existing between the college and the secondary (high) school. Before the War, colleges relied upon academies and other preparatory schools for their supply of students. These college preparatory schools naturally focussed their energies on meeting the requirements necessary to admit their pupils to the college, thus leaving the college entirely free to set its own standards and to map out its own line of work. However, at the close of the War, when the people turned with a newly awakened interest to education as the great hope of the Nation, there sprang up, especially in the West, a keen demand for an extension of the free education that had done so much for the elementary child. This brought about a rapid development of the free high school, which affectionately and hopefully came to be called the "people's college." The purpose of the "people's college" was not at first to prepare pupils for college, but to give them the advanced intellectual education which was then regarded as the proper foundation for professional study or for entering directly upon life's duty. Naturally, however, the desire for a still more advanced education even than the high school could give, developed. This desire grew rapidly under the stimulation of the great number of colleges that sprang up in various parts of the country as a part of the general movement for increased educational opportunities. And, under

Report of Carnegie Foundation

the same influences, it was not long before high schools were assuming the place and doing the work of the college-preparatory schools. In other words they, too, came under college domination and began to shape their courses and measure their success by college standards.

College Domination

But, within recent years, there has been a marked development of the idea that our schools are not preparing their pupils as they should for the practical needs of life. And naturally, the "people's college" has had to bear much of this criticism; especially since it has been bending its energies toward preparing its students for college careers, which but a meager percentage of them have been able to take up. The high school itself is realizing its position, and is, on the one hand, complaining of the college standards that it has felt the necessity of meeting—especially in the places where state universities form a part of the general educational system—while, at the same time, it is not yet certain what it can do to meet the demands made upon it as a life-preparatory school. Nor can the difficulty be met by offering to its students two courses of study; one for those preparing for college and the other for those going directly from the high school into their life-work. For, as the schools are now organized, pupils do not, as a rule, decide until late in their high-school course upon their definite work in life. The whole matter presents a situation that will probably demand a solution in the near future.

The Report also cites the fact that the colleges offer counter-claims against the complaints of the secondary schools. These are to the effect that high-school graduates come to them with only superficial knowledge and without the habit of prolonged and concentrated effort that is so important to progress in the higher institutions of learning. Many college professors claim that this superficial work, even in fundamentals, is largely due to the fact that the high schools

Counter-Claims of the Colleges

attempt too much and that they endeavor to imitate the lecture methods of the college with pupils who need the assistance and stimulation of recitation methods in their instruction. "A boy is certified as ready for examination in Cicero and Virgil, or as having already acquitted himself in them; yet his first college work in Latin may disclose a decidedly halting and defective knowledge of declensions and paradigms; careless elementary arithmetic and slovenly elementary algebra form the unstable basis beneath the more advanced mathematics and physics; more conspicuous still, it is stated, is the extraordinary inability of high-school boys to write or speak correctly their native tongue. Not only is their range of vocabulary small and their command of expression meager, but they are unable to spell correctly." This superficiality the college attributes to "The effort of the secondary school to make itself a miniature college instead of keeping contentedly within the bounds best suited to it."

Doctor Pritchett attributes the complaints made by each against the other as due to looking at matters from different view-points. "The differences of honest men arise almost always not out of differences as to facts, but out of differences of standpoint in regard to them." He says that there can be no doubt of the superficial preparation of many high-school graduates nor of the lack of consideration of college professors for the work done in the high schools, as well as the unreasonable demands which in many parts of the country they have imposed upon high schools. But both the college and the secondary school have failed to realize as they should that they are not working on separate problems but on two parts of the same thing. Therefore, it is the duty of both to get together and discover the best means of developing harmonious parts of a common aim and plan that is in accordance with the educational needs of the day. If this cannot be done, he says, "we must find another way to educate the democracy of America."

The following is suggested in the Report as a practical basis of articulation between the high school and the college:

1. "It seems clear that the high school and the college cannot be, and ought not to be, mechanically articulated, with no overlapping of the work of the one by the other. There is no valid reason why some subjects that must be taught in college to some students should not be taught in properly equipped high schools as well. On the other hand, there seems no valid reason why properly equipped high schools should not teach some subjects to some students that are ordinarily reserved for treatment in college." Basis of Articulation

2. Instead of having admission to college either by certificate from certain accepted high schools or by examination which is usually in effect a piecemeal examination because of the entrance with "conditions" that is customarily permitted, have a few simple examinations which shall demand a high order of efficiency in fundamental studies. This would at once get rid of conditioned students and afford a larger measure of freedom to the high school.

3. It is more important that the high school teach boys and girls to think, to face real problems, to acquire alertness and initiative, and to attain to a thorough knowledge of fundamental objects and a capacity for hard work than it is for it to teach certain subjects.

4. The unavoidable overlapping of the subjects of the high school and the college must not be allowed to take away the enthusiasm of the student, by such a repetition in the college of the things he has had in the high school that his appetite for them becomes dulled.

In brief, by a return on the part of the h.gh school to simpler and more sincere standards and efforts, and a substitution on the part of the college of simpler and more fundamental tests for admission so that the high school shall be given greater freedom, the high school and the

college will be more apt to become essentially articulated and to see that their problems are, after all, only different stages of the same problem.

The main obstacles in the way of such a consummation seem to be: (a) The natural inertia of organizations when once they have become established; (b) the college and the high school have grown up as separate organizations with, as a rule, "but faint knowledge of high-school interests, of high-school work, and of high-school conditions" on the part of college men; (c) the competition going on during the past two decades has led both high schools and colleges to be too much interested in securing students; the high schools and the colleges succeeding in attracting the largest number of students have been looked upon as the most successful.

The Teaching of English. — English is now generally regarded as the most important subject in the curriculum. Owing to the widespread feeling among educators themselves that the teaching of English in our high schools and colleges is not satisfactory, the National Education Association has arranged for a National Council of Teachers of English, to be composed of individual teachers and delegates from the various associations of teachers of English. The work of this Council is expected to relate itself very closely with that of the committee on college entrance requirements of the N. E. A., which has under consideration the entire problem of the relations between the colleges and the secondary schools.

These broad studies of educational conditions and needs by professional experts are accomplishing several very important results, not the least of which is the removal of the friction naturally arising when neither party to a controversy fully grasps the conditions involved nor the causes which are responsible for them. The preliminary report of the committee of the Modern Language Association, of which Professor Edwin M. Hopkins of the University of Kansas is chairman, indicates this. Of

the more than 1000 teachers consulted by this committee, nearly all expressed practically the same opinions. The testimony of these instructors, located in 33 different States, was to the effect: (1) That adequate provision for the proper teaching of English is not made; (2) that under existing conditions the teaching is superficial, not appealing, and often burdensome; and (3) that, as the teaching is now being done, thorough results are usually impossible.

Promotion by Subjects.—Non-promotion often requires repetition of well-done work. Hence this idea, for which the following is claimed:

1. It abolishes the present evil of requiring pupils to repeat subjects in which they are already sufficiently proficient in order that they may again go over the subjects in which they have failed. Such repetition is disheartening and entails the avoidable expense of providing for unnecessarily repeated work.

2. It enables a pupil to repeat work under more advantageous conditions than when he is advanced under the burden of one or more conditioned subjects the advanced work in which is based upon a knowledge of skill in which he is admittedly deficient.

3. It facilitates the adaptation of the course of study to the needs of the pupil. Under any other arrangement it is practically impossible for a pupil to take a subject in any other course than the one he is following.

4. It avoids a tendency to an undesirable leniency on the part of teachers toward one or more subjects in which the pupil is weak, because they know that their adverse decision is apt to mean that the pupil must repeat an entire term's work.

5. As the required proficiency in a subject is reached, it may be dropped and the time given to it devoted to subjects in which the pupil is weak.

The objections urged against such a plan are:

1. The difficulty of administration involved in the plan.

2. The danger that the pupil may neglect a distasteful study.

3. That desirable correlation of the work may be interfered with.

Training of High-school Teachers.—The importance of having well-trained teachers for all school-work is evident.

Professor John F. Brown, a member of the first group of high-school teachers who exchanged places with Prussian teachers, has written a valuable book on German secondary school education. The work is of especial value because of the clearness with which it traces the rise and improvement in efficiency of the Gymnasial Seminary—at present the best type of training school for secondary teaching—and the success with which German educators have dealt with the problem of providing thoroughly trained teachers for their secondary work. We are so apt to think of a hampering German bureaucratic control in educational matters, that it is a real pleasure to read Professor Brown's enthusiastic words concerning the freedom of initiative both permitted and encouraged by government officials, in these training schools. Not only is freedom of initiative encouraged, but men of ripe experience and possessing both breadth of knowledge and proved talent as teachers, are selected to instruct these prospective teachers.

In the second part of the volume, American conditions are compared with the German in a way that should reveal the risk in American education of not insisting upon careful professional preparation for high school teaching, no matter how thoroughly the would-be teacher knows the subject he desires to teach. In the closing chapter of the book are suggestions of how best to provide the proper pedagogical training for such work. Two points emphasized here are of especial value. First, the thoroughness with which such training can be provided is dependent upon the extent to which, as friends of

education, we are convinced that only thoroughly prepared and well-tested instructors are fit to train our high-school teachers; and second, such training will be delayed until the profession itself requires that each new generation of teachers shall surpass its predecessors in preparation for the important work of conserving the time and possibilities of our youth.

Exchange of Secondary Teachers.—Such interchange with foreign countries has not yet met with full success.

The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching again calls attention to the small number of American teachers who seem willing to accept the privilege of spending a year in Prussia, to secure the benefits of its great national system of education and the advantages of the year's study and residence among an enlightened modern people. The requests for scholarly German teachers, trained in the best ideals of the Prussian school system, have been greater than the Prussian ministry could supply.

As the Prussian Minister of Education requires a report to be made of the observations of the teachers sent to this country, it may be of interest to learn of their impressions of the work done in our American secondary schools. One of these teachers, Doctor Frederich Abee, who spent a year in the Horace Mann School, reports in substance as follows: "The textbook plays a decidedly more important part in American instruction than in ours; the instructor steps more into the background, and the work assigned to be done at home, as well as the written work prepared in the school, occupies a larger proportion of the field of instruction. In general, more is expected of the pupil's own work; it is explained to him at an early stage that he must help himself in life and can advance himself only through his own efforts. Independent study and reading, therefore, are expected of him to a large extent." Doctor Abee says

Report of Doctor Abee

the American boy has more time to himself for this work. In history teaching he says the prevalence of notebook work and the urgent demand for reference reading are two things in which American secondary teaching differs from the Prussian. From this reference reading the pupil is expected to draw his own conclusions, this being in entire accord with the American principle of self-help and self-instruction. The practice of expecting each pupil to be ready every day to say what he thinks of what he has read, results in the American boy having a better flow of language than the German. "On the other hand, the lack of reading aloud does harm to elocution in America."

"According to the American conception of the school as a place of training for real life, the instruction deals particularly with such matters as call for the child's initiative and powers of observation. The object of all schooling in America is, in a more pronounced manner than with us, a direct preparation for practical life and its demands—The ability to do is sought rather than knowledge. For this reason, particularly in the lower grades, subjects like drawing, handwork, manual training and art, which aim at increased manual dexterity, step into special prominence. Furthermore, the training is as many-sided as possible in order to awaken and foster the various latent energies of the child and to send him into the world a well-rounded man. The character of the American consequently seems to me to have more sides to it and to be more mobile than ours."

But here Doctor Abee notes what he regards as a weakness in our work, and that is that it is broader than it is deep. "At every step are to be seen a want of thoroughness and methodical procedure, a lack of system, and a neglect of important elementary principles. That German thoroughness which, of course, is sometimes a little tedious, but which is nevertheless praised highly in America, is for the most part sought in vain." He also thinks that in America too much freedom is given to

pupils, and at too early an age in the selection of their subjects. A great disadvantage of this, he says, is that our pupils are apt to make so many changes that they never pass the experimental stage in their work and also lose a large amount of valuable time. "Furthermore, the general foundation laid in the elementary school offers no satisfactory mental training on which so liberal a system can at once be built." This elective system and the common education of the sexes, aside from the difference in aims and problems, he regards as marking the chief contrasts between the two secondary school systems.

Contrary to his expectation, Doctor Abee found the management and order in our secondary schools to be good. This he says is especially true in our handling of masses of pupils. "In the handling of masses the Americans are masters, as can be seen at any time in large gatherings." Of the class-room discipline he has, however, not so favorable an opinion. "I never noticed disobedience or refractoriness, but indolent and careless attitudes and a disposition to all kinds of mischief and chattering. To this sort of thing, the teacher, with few exceptions, remains indifferent and indeed is often helpless." This is partly due, in his opinion, to the fact, that we are not a military country and know no military discipline, and partly to the prevalence of our ideas of free personal development.

Upon this report the President of the Carnegie Foundation, Doctor Pritchett, remarks: "It is to be remembered that the report refers to the very best examples of secondary schools which the United States has to offer. Even in such schools the *regime*, while lending itself to the encouragement of initiative, lacks, in the eyes of a well-trained Prussian teacher, thoroughness of training and discipline of mind and character." This view coincides closely with the expressions of the English instructors of the American students who are using the Rhodes Scholarships.

Suggested Extensions.—J. B. Jones, writing for the *Educational Review* for July, would go a step further in the exchange of teachers than has yet been taken. He would have exchanges made between the teachers of different parts of our own country. While he admits the value of school visits, he regards the visiting of other schools as of too short duration to afford anything but a hurried and superficial knowledge of what is going on. What is needed, if we would get the full benefit of the progress in other places, is "residence with a full opportunity to get steeped in the new environment." His reasons for advocating the plan are, "We Americans, for all our travel, mostly European, and for all our vaunted open-mindedness are extremely provincial. We know surprisingly little about our country, and do not manifest any insuperable desire to learn more." Teachers want to see other places and things about which they have been reading so much. And yet who can acquaint himself with these in the short time he has at his disposal, and at times when much that is best cannot be seen or observed at all?

As to whether teachers would embrace the opportunity, Mr. Jones enthusiastically says: "Give a teacher in Wisconsin, or Arizona, or Georgia, an opportunity to spend a whole year in Boston, New York, or Philadelphia, as exchange teacher without loss of time or salary—why, the thought of it would make her heart leap to her throat!" He would have, as a central bureau to direct and superintend the exchange, the Carnegie, Rockefeller, or Sage Foundation; thus utilizing the wisdom and experience already gained through the success of the plan of exchanging professors from our universities and secondary schools with foreign countries.

Private Schools

The growth and development of public school interests in the United States during the last two decades have been so tremendous that the need, and even the necessity, for private schools has almost been lost sight of. Professor

Nelson A. Jackson calls attention to the mission of the private school in a well-written article which he contributed to the December issue of *Education*. In this article he refers particularly to private schools "of a secondary grade, with a special reference to the boarding schools." And he does not include "the small select school, whose numbers are limited to 15 or 20, and conducted entirely by one or two persons. These cannot properly be considered schools, but only large homes where instruction is given. Neither do I include those schools which are conducted primarily for the purpose of giving instruction in church dogmas; for such are not in accord with the true idea of educational advancement. I wish to consider only those institutions which are truly American in character and ideals."

After tracing some of the good work done by private schools 60 years ago, before the public schools were adequately developed, he enumerates some of the reasons why private schools still exist and why there will always be a place for them in the educational scheme.

Uses of Private Schools

1. In the first place Professor Jackson refers to the larger foreign element that to-day is crowding some of our public schools and to the objection which the well-to-do American has to placing his child in the same classes with the alien for his education. He admits that "Whether this is as it should be, or no, is a question." But he claims that, as a result of this condition, "within the last two decades, in the vicinity of our large cities, many of the strictly private schools have come into existence."

2. Into the private institutions, whose charges are moderate, go the children of many middle-class Americans; because "In many homes, business calls the father away for the greater part of the day; the mother is busy with her club work, society functions, and the management of the household." The parents realize that there is not much time left for the careful home training of their children, and, as they love them, they look for a good

boarding school where the child will receive a thorough education and at the same time home training. Professor Jackson admits that in such cases he is also not claiming that conditions are as they should be but simply stating them as they exist.

3. "The private school is a boon to the guardian who has charge of orphan children left by their parents with money enough for their education." The question of a suitable home for the ward is often involved in such cases, and, unquestionably, the good private school serves a most useful purpose in furnishing such a home.

4. This same idea applies to the unfortunate children of divorced couples. "For these little waifs there is not much chance for any home life outside of the school."

5. It also serves a useful purpose in certain cases in which pupils have fallen behind their classes in one or more branches, because of the greater amount of personal attention possible in the smaller classes of the private school. This is also true of the youth who decides to return to school after an absence which would necessitate his being placed with a class of pupils much younger than himself. In the private school he is apt to find a sufficient variety of ages among his classmates not to feel embarrassed in regard to his own age.

Professor Jackson admits that some of these problems are being worked out in our public schools, but claims there are others that cannot be so solved. "I am in no wise criticising the public school; far be it from me to do that. It is doing a noble work, and is constantly improving and widening in its influence. It is the bulwark of our republic. But the private school is needed and fills a place in our educational system. It will stay and its numbers will increase."

The Private School and Culture.—President W. H. P. Faunce of Brown University has recently made a statement about the place and duty of the private school which is interesting, in view of the controversy in regard

to the relative merits of practical training and cultural training in a scheme of education—"Vocational and cultural training can no more be permanently separated than can the right hand and the left. A wave of interest in training for vocations is now sweeping over the country. But what is our real vocation? It is to be citizens, thinkers, leaders and helpers of mankind. It is poor training which fits a man for his job but not for life. We live in two worlds—a world of facts and a world of values. In the mastery of the facts the great need is the power of steady, concentrated attention. Our young people are versatile, ingenious and delightful, but often unable to focus their powers on any one task. In the world of values the chief education must be found. Here the private school still has a most important function. It can refuse to echo the popular demand for swift results and can insist on appreciation of the beautiful in nature, art and conduct. Education must show us not only what is efficient, but what is worth while."

Public versus Private Schools

In comparing the work and function of the private school with the work and functions of the public school, Doctor Faunce has said: "The private school teacher may have his boys with him twenty-four hours of every day. He is responsible not only for their intellectual development but also for their social, their athletic, and their religious life. The public school shares this responsibility with the family. The private school plucks the pupil out of the family in order to give him what the family cannot or will not give. The private school usually has the advantage of large personal attention and flexibility of method. The public school has the advantage in order, discipline and the larger horizon and greater consciousness of the common good. No school is the best school for all boys. The two spheres are so different that every teacher should ask himself for which he is by gift and disposition best suited."

PART III

CHAPTER V

DEVELOPMENTS DIRECTLY AFFECTING THE HIGHER INSTITUTIONS OF LEARNING

The College and the High School

THE portion of the fifth annual report of the president and treasurer of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching which deals with the interrelations of the colleges and secondary schools of the United States has already been referred to. There are several things, however, in President Pritchett's charges that need further emphasis. After speaking of the rather chaotic condition which he sees in our higher educational systems, he says: "A great number of colleges are scattered over the United States having no satisfactory relation to the secondary schools from which they draw their students, exacting entrance requirements with little regard to the secondary schools, and receiving in turn from the high schools pupils who are in the majority of cases ill prepared for college work. The situation is unsatisfactory alike to the college and to the secondary school, and can be regarded only as a transitional stage in the development of our general educational system." As has been stated, the complaints of the college emphasize especially the superficiality of the knowledge of the high-school graduate and his inability to make prolonged and concentrated effort in his college work, a condition due to the large number of subjects which he has had time merely to skim over because of the ambition of the

Entrance Requirements

secondary school to make itself a miniature college instead of keeping contentedly within the bounds best suited to it. On the other hand, the high schools bitterly criticise the colleges for practically prescribing the course of study for them; thus compelling them to follow a curriculum that is not of the highest service to the great majority of their students, who do not go to college. The high schools endeavor to justify the multiplicity of subjects they teach by saying that society demands these subjects somewhere in the public school course; hence, they must teach them, as all students cannot possibly have access to a college.

As he contends, the right conduct of both is possible "only as each appreciates the problems, the needs and the work of the other." The high-school course can be so arranged as to prepare the great mass of its students for citizenship in a democracy and the relatively few, perhaps five per cent, for college, by insisting upon a thorough preparation in a few fundamentals and without sacrificing such studies as agriculture, shop-work, housekeeping, business courses, etc., which touch the lives and the vocations of the future citizens. The difficulty has been that in our haste to enrich and to diversify the curriculum we have to some extent lost our ideal of what education means. This ideal Doctor Pritchett defines as a sound knowledge of a few elementary branches of human knowledge, accompanied by such a discipline in acquiring this knowledge as will make the mind an efficient agent, ready and forceful in the work set before it. "The boy who desires to enter college and the boy who desires to enter business alike need to be well grounded in fundamental studies and to gain a real mastery of a few things. In a word, the same ideal of education which will send up to college competent candidates will also send into the business world well-trained beginners." This fact needs to be recognized by both the college and the high school.

Citizenship

Entrance Requirements

The question of how a pupil's fitness for entering college should be determined, called forth an animated discussion at the meeting of the New England Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, which was held at Cambridge, Oct. 13th. As there were a number of such broadly trained educators as President Lowell of Harvard and Professor Judd of Chicago University at the meeting, its discussions were of great value. It is interesting to note that on certain general principles there was practically unanimous agreement. These, as reported in *Education* for November, are:

Summary

1. The teachers of the preparatory schools, after several years' association with their pupils, can form a great deal better idea of a given pupil's fitness to pursue a course of college studies than can any body of college professors off hand, without ever having seen the pupil until the hour of examination.

2. The aim of all examinations should be to discover whether or not the pupil has a real aptitude and capacity to take up college work, rather than to measure the depth and breadth of the fund of information which he has acquired in the preparatory school.

3. There should be a closer articulation between the preparatory school and the college. The pupil's work should be viewed as one whole, not as made up of two parts, with a sharp division line between high school and college. The college teaching force should be informed of the individual pupil's record, aptitude, and scholarship as revealed in the preparatory school, and the college work should be a development along lines already started. Thus real scholarship may be promoted and the college course may be made an effective preparation for practical life.

4. There should be an increased recognition of the vocational studies, on the part of the colleges, as fully

equivalent to the old-line subjects. If a pupil has done scholarly and able work in mechanics, or commercial branches, etc., he should receive the same credit for such work as though he had been equally proficient in Latin or modern languages.

There was some difference of opinion, however, as to how far it was safe to go in carrying out this recognition of equivalent subjects. The delicacy of the task of the College Entrance Examination Board was apparent from explanations made during the discussion. The difficulty of making a fair and adequate set of examination questions, when examinations are held, was also touched upon.

Electives

At the beginning of the school year in September, Yale University substituted for its former elective system a number of well-organized groups of subjects covering the entire four years of a college career. These new groups provide for the students a choice from a wide range of naturally combined subjects and, in this way, meet their needs and desires, while at the same time avoiding the probability of incomplete or disconnected courses being chosen. The possibilities of too early specialization are also avoided by the group plan; while at the same time it permits of a decided strengthening of the work by laying the necessary stress upon the most important subject or subjects of each group.

The University of Chicago has thrown valuable light upon the whole subject of permitting students to choose the branches upon which they shall work for their degrees. After an investigation lasting for two years, a committee appointed by the institution reports that, when the elective system was first introduced into American colleges, its zealous advocates claimed, in answer to the expressed fear that students would elect the easiest work, that no instructor would continue to offer easy courses, because this would attract a large number of the

less serious students, or "snap-seekers," and he would soon be deterred by the reputation of giving "soft" courses. But the very opposite is now asserted; for the elective system, it is said, encourages snap courses, and instructors, being human, like to be "elected." College authorities, it is alleged, want numbers, and hence place a premium upon the work of an instructor who can attract large classes. Aside from the advantage, however, of having the proper amount of serious work for its graduates, the trained educational experts of an institution should be far more capable of building up proper groups of subjects in the various courses than its immature students.

What a Modern University Should be

The September number of the *American Educational Review* quotes the following recent utterance of Governor Woodrow Wilson, who for so many years was president of Princeton University, as to what in his judgment a modern university should be: "I suppose that there are still men who think of universities as remote and cloistered places, where men think of that imperfect account of life which is contained in books, and do not look directly upon the actual facts. But that is not the kind of university I have known. I remember telling a body of gentlemen who looked particularly well dressed and comfortable in New York not many months ago, that I understood the business of a university to be to make young gentlemen just as unlike their fathers as possible. Of course, I hastened to explain that I did not mean any disrespect to the fathers; but that by the time a man had gotten old enough to send his son to college, he had established himself in some kind of success and had got the point of view and separation of some particular occupation, and to that degree he had rendered himself unable to see the general conditions of the country; and that I understood the business of the university to be to generalize the generation, to take them away from the prejudices

of their fathers and lay before them afresh the map of life which men had traveled generation through generation, making their own fortunes, unassisted by previous generations except in so far as the experience of previous generations had afforded them a standard of conduct; so that each generation might look afresh upon the fortunes of mankind and know that the work was an unending work of lifting men from level to level, a new achievement and fresh discovery. That is the spirit of the modern university—not to keep men anchored in the prepossession of the past, but to take them to some quiet upland where they may see the visions of the future."

To this might well be added a statement recently made by a writer in the "Columbia State"—"The ideals of university training have passed from the selfish individualistic desire for education as a means of personal advancement to the broader one of social service. By no means new, this idea has of late been called the Amherst idea, though with what particular justification is not clear—That college training should be undergone for the sake of learning and for the benefit of the State, and carries with it a spiritual responsibility for the service of humanity, is too high and broad an idea to be claimed by any institution, however well such institution may establish the principle as a lighting to the hearts of its students.

Social Service

"It means a training for public leadership, not a personal equipment for trade, though the latter point is often emphasized in getting young men to attend college. For the youth unhardened by contact with life, however, the nobler ideal of service is more inspiring than that of gain, since the majority of them want a career that will be of help to others. Payot, in his ever fresh and stimulating book, 'The Education of the Will,' makes it clear that at some time in the life of every young man he must decide whether he is to live for himself or for others, whether he is to be a producer or a parasite. If he chooses the first,

he must live a life of service. Public leadership means not office seeking, but the employing of one's enlightenment where it will do the most good."

Cost of Instruction

Harvard has published some interesting statistics on the cost of education per student in the different departments of that institution. These statistics reveal the well-known fact that in these large institutions the fees received from the students pay for but a fractional part of the cost of their instruction. They also show that research and graduate courses are far more expensive to the university than the less advanced courses. This is well illustrated in the fact that, while the freshman course in English cost $23.25 per student, some of the more advanced courses in English cost nearly $100. The average cost per student for all of the courses in the department of English is $31.69. For mathematics, the average for all courses is $53.88; for philosophy it is $48.69; and for architecture and botany it reaches respectively the sum of $103.93 and $178.96. Some of the courses in the department of business cost as much as $500, while the general average is $117.39. Public speaking courses cost the university $37.48 per man, while the courses in the classics cost $73.49. Although but $39.42 is spent per pupil on the courses in comparative literature, on some of the research courses thousands of dollars per pupil are expended.

Voluntary Tuition

To assist in bridging the gap between the cost of instruction and the tuition fees charged, Yale University is trying the experiment of "full voluntary tuition." By this is meant that the required tuition in Yale is only about 60 per cent of what the teaching which the student receives costs the university and, therefore, those who are both able and willing are asked to pay in full for the instruction they receive. In this way Yale expects greatly to reduce an annual deficit which must now be made up from funds that could to great advantage be

used for other purposes. As in most private colleges and universities the students pay only in part for what they get, these institutions work on a semi-charitable basis. There are a few higher institutions managed by private enterprise where this is not true. The state colleges and universities are, of course, non-charitable; for the state itself pays in this case, education being regarded as a duty of the state even to the extent of a professional equipment of the student for life. The instruction in such schools is avowedly a public function and no student is, therefore, under any personal financial obligation to the school.

Whether the Yale experiment will not rather emphasize the semi-charitable feature and draw lines of distinction between the two classes of students remains to be seen. Much, of course, depends upon the way in which the new plan is managed. There is, at least, a distinct tendency to limit free scholarships that is apparent everywhere. It is probably most noticeable in our theological seminaries. Schooling should either be paid for at its full value or the state should provide free education for all by taxation. The fallacy in any other plan lies in the fact that education is either a right of the child or it is a privilege that should be fully paid for; it can never under any condition be a charity. This does not, of course, preclude the idea that a community or an organization may, for its own welfare, pay for the schooling of its most promising youth. But there should in such cases be no distinction founded on the basis of ability to pay.

Importance of Good Instructors

In a recent address, President Jordan of Leland Stanford University emphasized the superior value of the good teacher as compared with elaborate equipment in the laboratory and elsewhere. "Sometimes," he said, "in our wealth of educational opportunity, we long for the time when, as of old, the student had the master all to

himself, the master unperplexed by duties of administration, not called hither and thither by the duties of his station, but giving himself, his enthusiasm, his zeal and his individuality to the student. Not teaching books but how to make books our servants. All this time master and student struggling together to make both ends meet and sometimes succeeding, so happy and so poor. So it was in the old time, and so it shall be again when the new demands and the new wealth find their adjustment."

Doctor Jordan referred to the well-known fact that, after all, it is the teacher who makes the school, whether it be elementary, high, college, or university. But unfortunately at present we are emphasizing elaborate laboratory apparatus, library and other equipments, and not giving corresponding emphasis to the teachers who are to use these in the interests of the students. As a result, Doctor Jordan says we go into the market to hire for our colleges and universities inexperienced men and men of whose success as teachers we cannot be assured. This results in weak teaching and influence at a point where they should be especially strong; for often "The boy has the freedom and the facility of the university when he can make no use of it" because he lacks the assistance of thoroughly competent instructors.

Doctor Jordan expressed the opinion that we have too many universities—that of "University facilities we have enough for ten times—twenty times the number of students"; that more than half of the students "are of gymnasium (high school) grades," and that nine-tenths of the teaching "is done by young men, men who have not made their mark, or who have made it only as cogwheels in the machine."

Duplicate Colleges

Since the Civil War the movements in higher education have been toward a development of the university and the specialized work for which it stands, rather than toward

an improvement of the work of the college. There are now many indications that the college, and the college idea of interest in the individual student, are once more to become the objects of special interest. The preceptorial system at Princeton and the general system of advisers and sympathetic helpers for freshmen that is springing up everywhere are specific indications of this.

In this connection President Taylor of Vassar has recommended the establishment of a second group of college buildings, which shall constitute a duplicate college where ample provision can be made for the care of the individual student. His suggestion for Vassar is that there shall be built a secondary group of buildings where the pupils may be lodged and where they will have at hand all needful academic facilities, with a working library and a separate chapel. But the most important feature of the plan is the resident professors who would be on hand at all times to render counsel, guidance, and needed assistance. They would be expected to bring to bear upon the students the personal care which colleges ought to exercise and which the old time smaller colleges did to a great extent provide. With our improved facilities and our further knowledge of ways and means of instruction, such a plan should produce and preserve an atmosphere that would prove to be the best part of a college training.

Research Work

Because the greater number of German scientific investigators are teachers at universities, the editor of the Foreign Notes of *Education* has made the suggestion that all universities should make it possible for such research workers, not only to have laboratories that afford every facility for their work but also that such provision should be made as will permit the work to be done "in absolute tranquillity, unencumbered by the duties of teaching."

The reason given for the latter is that the work of teaching tends to exhaust the investigator to an extent

that is not compatible with his best creative power. That it often also robs students of the assistance in their work to which they are entitled, although this is not referred to in the above article, is also well known. The work of teaching and the work of research both seem to demand that, at least during the period of authorized research work, investigators who are also teachers should be freed from the responsibilities of regular classes and lectures.

Efficiency of Management

The published report of the investigations of Morris L. Cooke, an expert in business management who was employed by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching to inquire into the efficiency of the management of our higher institutions of learning, conveys the general impression that much better results should be obtained by these institutions with the same expenditure of money. In Mr. Cooke's judgment, the failure of results to measure up to expenditures is due to a general lack of "system"; to the fact that buildings are not used to their full capacity; to a lack of coöperation between the different institutions; to the fact that the time and attention of the professor are too often taken for matters that could be better performed by others, or at least as well done by employees of minor importance; and, in general, that there is a lack of standardization in the administration systems of our colleges and universities. Mr. Cooke regards the practice of administering affairs through committees as especially bad, inasmuch as it makes it difficult to build up feelings of responsibility, weakens initiative, and encourages interference and wastefulness. In lieu of committee-management, Mr. Cooke suggests functional management; that is, he would have each man perform those functions for which he is best fitted, and would clothe him with the necessary authority to carry on his work in an efficient manner.

Committee Management

While Mr. Cooke recognizes the value of research work

and sees the importance of having students come under the influence of experts who are authorities in their line of teaching, he deprecates the tendency to set a premium upon the expert as a teacher of undergraduates. "Expert" Teaching He does this on the ground that what the undergraduate needs is to become well acquainted with existing knowledge, rather than to be trained as a discoverer of new things which, because of his lack of knowledge and training, can be of but minimum service to him. According to Mr. Cooke's ideas, it is unfortunate that some institutions are research laboratories first and places of instruction afterwards. To increase the efficiency of the teaching, Mr. Cooke suggests: (a) That some uniform gauge of the work accomplished shall be adopted. For this purpose he suggests a "student hour," by which "Student Hour" he means one hour of lectures for a single pupil— this student hour to serve as a uniform measure for cost, as well as for the work done by a student or by an instructor; (b) that the work of an educator must be measured and governed by the same general efficiency standards that apply in other occupations; (c) and that the scale of salaries must be sufficiently elastic to permit merit to fix the amount to be paid.

In the matter of the uneconomical use of buildings he calls attention to a "magnificent lecture hall, standing on land worth $25 a square foot, in use six hours a week." To prevent such a condition, Mr. Cooke suggests that some one should have the function of knowing the entire roster of work, with full power to assign rooms to the teachers for their work. To his mind there is no reason why a room might not at different periods serve well the needs of different departments. Even laboratories can usually be so fitted up as to permit the moving aside of tables and the storing away of material, so that they can be used for lecture purposes. In general, Mr. Cooke would have the administrative activities so organized and carried out as to prevent waste of money, time, and effort.

He suggests a purchasing department; a general supply room where regularly needed supplies always may be obtained; and that there be a general business department, with a responsible head, so that the actual cost of carrying on any and all departments can always be known. He would not waste the time of professors in committee meetings concerning things of which they have little knowledge and in which they have no interest. In this connection, he mentions a series of committee meetings, which he understood were held each year in a certain institution, for determining whether the departing graduating class was not disposing of its belongings at exorbitant rates to the incoming class. And finally, he would not have the efforts of valuable men taken up with clerical work, and functions which can generally be more efficiently performed by less valuable people especially trained for the work.

Although Mr. Cooke recognizes that there is an element in the professional work of the college which does not yield to the analysis which is so readily applied to industrial work, he still maintains that the very important business side of education should be conducted in an efficient, business-like way. And, no doubt, many will go a step further and say that even the spiritual element, whose value and influence cannot be measured in dollars and cents, need not suffer under an efficient organization and administration that eliminates waste, fixes responsibility, and rewards merit—the important thing, of course, being that merit must not be gauged by material results alone and that the greatest amount of freedom in well justified method be encouraged.

President Butler, in his annual report of the work at Columbia University, touches on this question of efficiency of administration. "The office and value of administration in a modern university are not yet clearly understood. But they are vitally important if the wisest use is to be made of limited resources, if waste and confusion are to be

prevented, and the conditions surrounding teaching and investigation are to be such as to make possible the prosecution of successful intellectual endeavor."

Academic Freedom

Doctor Butler also dwells on the question of the amount and kind of freedom that should be accorded to the public statements and beliefs of a professor in an institution. As recently there have been occasions on which accepted social standards and beliefs have been publicly attacked by professors in universities, and the attention of an alarmed public has been critically centered upon the institutions employing the ones who have made the statements, Doctor Butler's words are well worth noting. He calls attention to the fact that a great university is for scholars of every conceivable type and that, therefore, freedom of spirit is the very essence of its life and must be made secure. "But freedom imposes responsibility, and there are distinct limitations which ought to be self-imposed upon that academic freedom which has been won at so great a cost and which has produced such noble results. A teacher or investigator who offends against common morality has destroyed his academic usefulness, whatsoever may be his intellectual attainments. A teacher who offends against the plain dictates of common sense is in like situation.

"A teacher who cannot give to the institution which maintains him common loyalty, and that kind of service which loyalty implies, ought not to be retained through fear of clamor or criticism. Men who feel that their personal convictions require them to treat the mature opinion of the civilized world without respect or with contempt, may well be given an opportunity to do so from private station and without the added influence and prestige of a university's name." On the other hand, it is the duty of its trustees to give to the right kind of academic freedom "that constant and complete protec-

Loyalty

tion which it must have if the true university spirit is to be fostered and preserved. This must be done without fear or favor, whatever the consequences may be."

English Criticism

One of the unexpected advantages resulting from the Rhodes Scholarship is the way in which it is revealing points of weakness, as well as points of strength, in our own educational system. Through the courtesy of the executive officers of the Rhodes Trust, the Carnegie Foundation has been granted the privilege of examining the reports made upon the work of the students from America. As these reports are made by teachers of ripe experience, who have spoken in a friendly spirit and evidently with entire impartiality, what they have indicated will bear careful consideration, especially from teachers in our secondary schools and colleges. As Doctor Pritchett says, "They throw a most helpful light, not only on the results of our teaching, but on our methods. These shrewd criticisms not only bring out in clear relief the student's lack of precision and his weakness before a hard intellectual task, but they point back unerringly to the causes of this failure in the lack of sound teaching, and in the diffuse curriculum, with its numerous and partial examinations which never call upon the student to view the field as a whole—They show also most clearly that in the majority of cases the student finds difficulty in doing his work, arising out of the superficiality and the diffuseness of his previous training in the American secondary school and in the American college, and the failure of this training to give him intellectual power. It is the characteristic weakness of our whole American life. The American has not yet got out from the spell of the pioneer days. He is alert, resourceful, but superficial. The pioneer stage, however, has passed. Alertness and resourcefulness can no longer take the place of thorough training and careful preparation. To-day the great

opportunity of the secondary school and of the college is to cure this weakness, not to minister to it."

Although there is abundant evidence that the Oxford instructors are partial to particular forms of culture and will naturally judge of work according to their own standards and preferences, and while it is also true that these students do not always represent the best product of our educational system, yet the exceptionally cosmopolitan character of the Rhodes scholars, the students coming as they do from all English-speaking countries, two being allowed from each state and province, gives to these Oxford educators a unique opportunity for comparison. And for this comparison, in the subjects of culture selected, they should be competent judges. As they are totally disinterested in their comparisons, their judgments should also command due respect.

A New Departure

A special committee which was appointed some months ago in the University of Chicago to ascertain wherein the instruction in the institution might be improved, after various conferences with members of the faculty, with the alumni, and with the undergraduates, has recommended the appointment of an officer whose sole province shall be to promote greater efficiency in the teaching in the University. This officer or dean will be expected to keep in close touch with the President, the Dean of the Faculties, the instructors, and with the students and the alumni, for the purpose of investigating the conditions and problems of undergraduate instruction, and for the purpose of making suggestions and recommendations in regard to the work and the methods of securing the most satisfactory results. This marks a new departure in American university work, and, while it suggests possibilities of friction, under wise management it should be fruitful in helpfulness to all concerned.

College Training and Success

The dean of Milliken University discusses this question in the September issue of the *American Educational Review*. "It is said," he says, "again and again that the college man is impractical because he gets only theory and fails in consequence to get the practical side." And this notwithstanding the fact "that the practice of every trade and profession always follows the doer's theory of the business and does not precede the idea or theory." Data have frequently been collected showing that the earning capacity of the college man is much greater than that of the non-college man. But taking the broader, more important stand, that college men participate to a far greater extent in affairs connected with national greatness, we notice a marked gain over the non-college man. In the 54th and 55th Congress 36 per cent of the men in each House were college men. From 1841–1898, approximately 55 per cent of the Speakers of the House, 55 per cent of the Presidents and 54 per cent of the Vice-Presidents, 85 per cent of the Chief Justices and 68 per cent of the members of the Supreme Court, were college men. As, until recently, college men constituted only about one per cent of the entire male population, this showing is remarkable.

In Appleton's Encyclopedia of American Biography, one out of every 40 college graduates receives mention, while of the rest of the population only one out of every 10,000 is noticed. In the 1903 edition of "Who's Who in America," there are 11,551 entries and of these 39 per cent are college men. The statistics of Harvard are instructive in this respect, as out of the 4011 graduates in the period from 1861–87 the names of 301 appear in "Who's Who" or one in 13. Of the first seven in each class, 573 are living, of whom 82 are noted, or one in 7. This seems to establish the superiority of the much abused "book-worm," for he seems to be, *par excellence*, the man of achievement.

Rank in College and its Relation to Success

The *American Educational Review* for January 1911 makes an interesting report upon the much mooted question of the relation of a student's rank in his college studies to his chances for success in life. The *Review* very justly says that the trouble in considering such a question has always come from the difficulty of finding an acceptable measure of success. The record from which data for comparisons have usually been taken, "Who's Who in America," has often been discredited as "emphasizing too much academic and literary attainment, to the exclusion of wide fields of what the world regards as worthy endeavor."

The record of the Harvard class of 1894 is then given as evidence that the Harvard Alumni Bulletin is correct in its statement, "there is no undergraduate hallucination more persistent than that which assumes an entire absence of any connection between examination grades and post-collegiate success." For the "successful men" of that class, as selected by three separate and thoroughly competent judges, obtained 196 A's during their years at Cambridge. An equal number of men chosen at random from the class received only 56 A's. Of D's the successful men received only 33, while the others had 75. The *Review* adds that Mr. Taft led his class at Yale, Hughes his at Brown, and Root his at Hamilton. Also that the law-school men of a class graduated some years ago, when asked the question, all agreed that the two things were very intimately related. But, curiously, only half of those questioned could see any connection between professional success and undergraduate study. However, to satisfy himself, the questioner took the names of "the successful lawyers who had stood high in the law school, and running their records back, found that they were also exceptionally studious undergraduate students."

Medical Education

The President of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching again refers in his annual report to medical education in the United States. He says in

part that "The most thoughtful men of the medical profession have for years been working for the betterment of medical schools and a reduction of their number. The task of rehabilitation, however, promises to be arduous. In the first place, the commercial medical school must be conquered; its strength is a combination of the strength of ignorance and of self-interest, speciously concealed beneath the claim that such an enterprise affords as good an education as the times and the circumstances of the region allow, and that it keeps the medical profession a democracy, instead of allowing it to become a trust, an oligarchy, or an aristocracy. Meanwhile the public surely can be educated to realize that the self-interest of these medical proprietors is directly opposed to the true interests of the people at large. The education of the American people in this matter has just begun, and it will require time and patience to make clear the interests of the medical profession and of the public, and to show that the interests of both are conserved by such public requirements as restrict the number of incompetent men allowed to enter the profession and raise the quality of training among those permitted to enter. The public is slow to understand that under present conditions few patients receive the best medical treatment which the science of the day offers, treatment just as feasible of application in the small hamlet as in the large city. Still less fully does the public realize that many interests are at work to keep the door to this great profession open to the incompetent and unfit. A great work of public education is waiting to be done in this matter."

Commercial Education

At a recent dinner of the American Manufacturers' Association, a visitor from South America took us to task for our bad manners in business. He said, "I do not know whether we of the Southern Hemisphere are more courteous, but we cannot stand the brutal way you Americans

address us in your letters. You are not courteous. When you ask for an order, you treat us as if we were half civilized and ignorant, and still you wonder why you do not get more trade in our country."

No comment is needed upon this frank avowal; for the contrast in general courtesy between our own and foreign business men has too often been the subject of remark. Although, as the editor of the *Outlook* remarks, "It is a noticeable fact that as business increases in dignity and importance the standard of manners steadily rises, and that in the great banking houses which have world-wide business relations, as a rule, one meets with courtesy and good breeding." Might it not be well for us to take a lesson from the Japanese, who "in the modern system of business education which they have worked out with so much care, side by side on the walls of the schoolrooms with the maxims of prudence and industry are hung the maxims of good manners." At least we should not despise the courtesies of trade nor endeavor to save time and words at the expense of good manners.

Dangers in Specialization

The Honorable James Bryce, the Ambassador from Great Britain, sees danger in the modern tendency toward specialization. In an address to the students of Johns Hopkins University on Washington's Birthday, he pointed out the dangers of too close application to a special line of study, although he admitted the necessity of specialization in these modern days, owing to the far-reaching influence of modern scientific investigation in all branches of knowledge. "The problem," said Mr. Bryce, "which to-day confronts us in all universities is how to find time both for specialized studies, which have become so much more absorbing, and also for a survey and comprehension of the general field of knowledge which is necessary in order to make the university graduate a truly educated and cultured man, capable of seeing the relation of his

own particular study to others and of appreciating the various methods by which discovery is prosecuted. Devotion to any special study, whether in the sphere of natural science or not, tends to narrow the mind and prevents the faculties from attaining their highest development. Many of the greatest discoveries have arisen from bringing together facts and ideas drawn from different regions whose relations had not previously been discerned. The more you extend the range of knowledge the more you increase the chances of discoveries. Most of the great men to whom the progress of science is due were not trained specialists; but had minds that ranged far and wide on the field of knowledge."

Mr. Bryce refers to natural science here, because in his address he used that subject to indicate what he meant by general intellectual cultivation as opposed to special knowledge. He indicated that in his judgment the student, the investigator, or the teacher of natural science should also have some knowledge gained through thorough, though not necessarily comprehensive study: of a deductive science such as geometry; of some observational science such as geology; on the human side, of some abstract science such as psychology, logic or ethics; and, in language, knowledge of one foreign tongue, preferably an inflective one; with also an interest in history as a record of human effort and development.

The Carnegie Institution

The most remarkable institution in the world for the advancement of knowledge is the Carnegie Institution of Washington. The purpose of this institution is solely that of scientific research. The only instruction that it attempts is that of spreading abroad the results of its investigations for the benefit of students, scientists and men of affairs. In January of 1911, when this institution already had an annual income of more than $600,000 a year, its founder, Andrew Carnegie, added $10,000,000

to the $15,000,000 that he had already given for its establishment. This has raised the income of the institution to more than a million dollars a year. With this large fund ten more or less independent departments have been established within the institution at Washington, each with its staff of investigators and their assistants. There are also general departments of administration and publication located there. But in addition to these larger departments of work, numerous special efforts outside the institution have already received liberal financial and other assistance, the entire purpose of the fund being to furnish all possible material support to the efforts of widening the boundaries of human knowledge.

Although the Carnegie Institution is endeavoring to increase the vast sum of human knowledge for the benefit of posterity, it is at the same time working to furnish some very practical results that are of immediate importance. An example of this is furnished by the Department of Terrestrial Magnetism, which was organized to discover if possible the nature of magnetism and to determine why the earth is magnetic. But the first step taken, a magnetic survey of the world, revealed the fact that the charts published from time to time by the various governments to indicate to their navigators the variations to which the magnetic needle of the compass is subject in different parts of the sea are often sufficiently incorrect to be a menace to the safety of vessels. As an illustration of this, it is sufficient to state that the non-magnetic yacht, the Carnegie, which for several years past has been employed in this magnetic survey of the world, has proved the charts for the region off the coast of Newfoundland to be almost a degree in error. As this is the track followed by nearly all the large transatlantic steamships and means an error of some fifty miles, the possibilities for shipwreck through the close following of such charts is manifest. It was due to faulty magnetic charts that the Slavonia was wrecked on a reef of the Azores in 1909.

Location

Although the headquarters of the Carnegie Institution is in Washington, many of its departments carry on much of their work in other places. The laboratory of the Department of Marine Biology is, for example, located at Tortugas, Florida, while the 60-inch reflecting telescope for the use of the Astronomical Department has been erected on Mount Wilson near Pasadena, California. It is at this solar observatory that Doctor George Ellery Hale, its able director, has already found ways of revealing more than 60,000 new worlds. In fact, the permanent plant of the Carnegie Institution now consists of the handsome general administration building in Washington and 58 other buildings located in various places. These include 5 laboratories and 2 observatories. The observatory located at San Luis, Argentina, on the eastern plateau of the Andes, like the one at Mount Wilson, has already made an enviable record for its stellar studies. The Institution also employs a fleet of 13 vessels in its marine service.

The Geographical Laboratory has recently rendered a valuable service to the world by demonstrating the essential rock materials in Portland cement, as well as the proper porportions and methods of combination of these materials to make this cement. With these formulas it is now possible to produce cement anywhere that the necessary elements are to be found, as well as in the few rare places where materials in right proportions are now known to exist. Many things that can be turned to practical benefit in behalf of man have also already been discovered by the Department of Experimental Evolution, which is carefully investigating the life habits of various animals, birds, fishes, insects, and plants.

PART IV

CHAPTER VI

MATTERS AFFECTING THE EMOLUMENTS AND PROFESSIONAL STANDING OF TEACHERS

EMOLUMENTS

Salaries

ANY careful study of the salary question reveals what an exceedingly complex problem it is. It is becoming quite clear that the minimum wage should not merely provide a living but also aim at an income sufficient to provide for the opportunity for self-improvement which comes from the margin of income and from leisure hours. But shall it be gauged by the value of the teacher's productive power or by his value to society? Shall it be controlled by the law of supply and demand or shall it be placed on a basis which will attract and hold only highly selected ability? These are fundamental questions that have not yet received a business-like consideration.

One of the most important principles that is standing out more and more clearly in the extended consideration being given to a more economical and effective management of business and industry, is the principle that the greatest amount of profit can be derived only from employees who are offered inducements to take a vital interest in their work. A contented, intelligent, and fully interested employee is one of the most important factors in modern success. And nowhere, it being a spiritual employment, is this principle of greater moment than in teaching. A teacher who is liberally rewarded both in social recognization and in pay is inspired to better service

than one whose spirit is dragged down by his feelings of dissatisfaction or by distracting thoughts of ways and means to eke out his existence.

SALARIES IN PHILADELPHIA.—The women teachers of Philadelphia have presented to the Board of Education of that city a very business-like appeal for an increase in their salaries. Some of the reasons stated in their appeal were as follows:

(1) "The greater preparation now demanded of the teacher, involving additional expenditure of time and money; the greater demands now made upon the teacher's time, strength, and ability; the increased cost of the necessaries of life and the rise in the standard of living; the increased salaries of other wage earners, even of those holding positions requiring little preparation and involving slight responsibility; the scarcity of satisfactory teachers; the danger to the schools arising from keeping the teacher's position so poorly paid that capable and ambitious women will avoid it—the teacher is the school—handsome and commodious school buildings, elaborate paraphernalia, even a complex system of highly paid supervision, however commendable and desirable, can never take the place of the good teacher nor supplement in a single particular the poor teacher; the endorsement of the justice of our cause by a large number of our leading citizens, by business men's associations, and by thousands of voters and tax payers; the increased efficiency of the primary school—a critical period in the pupil's school experience—that would be secured by making the primary grades attractive to the best teachers; the value to the community and the nation of the teacher's services.

(2) The cost of preparing for work of teaching—	
Board, clothing, and earning capacity during time of preparation—approximately	$2000
(3) What it costs the Philadelphia teacher to live— (very conservative estimate)	
Board and laundry	400.00
Clothing	150.00
Carfare	35.00
Professional expenses—	
School-room decoration, material for extra work with classes, pension fund, etc	25.00
Summer schools or teachers' courses	20.00
Magazines, books, lectures, etc	10.00
Incidental expenses, charity, recreation, summer vacation, etc	40.00
Doctors' and dentists' bills, deductions from salary, etc	25.00
Total	$705.00

We think you will agree that this is a modest estimate, but it is $185 more than the minimum salary of the primary teacher, and only $115 less than the maximum. With so narrow a margin what provision can be made for the proverbial and inevitable rainy day?

INCREASE IN THE COST OF LIVING.—According to Dun's figures the cost of living within 10 years has increased 35 per cent.; while according to Bradstreet it was 36 per cent. It would therefore be fair to assume that since the time of the adoption of the present schedule the cost of living for our teachers has increased at least 20 per cent. On this basis it is evident that the salaries of teachers should be substantially increased if they are to have the purchasing power of seven years ago. To make the purchasing power of the present salaries equal to their purchasing power at the time of the adoption of the present schedule the following increase would be necessary:

Minimum.....	$520.	Should be increased to.....	$ 650
Maximum.....	820.	Should be increased to.....	1,050
Minimum.....	620.	Should be increased to.....	775
Maximum.....	920.	Should be increased to.....	1,150

With these figures in mind, the modesty and reasonableness of the teachers' request for a minimum of $600 and a maximum of $1,000 is apparent."

The Philadelphia teachers quote the following statement made by the Hon. John Wanamaker during their campaign: "I am willing to go on record as saying that I do not know of any other class of women educated to a profession that receives as little pay as the teachers of the elementary schools. The plain fact that it costs more to live has been amply certified to. Dun's careful investigations show that, taking the wholesale prices of 350 articles, the increased cost in ten years has been 35 per cent. This is wholesale; what the retailer has added to that I am not going to guess. Bradstreet's investigation shows an increase of 36 per cent. The United States Bureau of Statistics and Labor makes it 23 per cent. A commission of the State of Massachusetts says it cost 21 per cent. more for the ordinary person to live than it did ten years ago." A very interesting quotation on the subject is from the Report of the Board of Education of Newark, N. J.: "It is common knowledge that the cost of labor in most trades and occupations has advanced rapidly in the last twenty years, at least $33\frac{1}{3}$ per cent.,

and in many cases a great deal more. That teachers should share in this increase is not unreasonable. Statistics show that the cost of living has increased even faster than income. The demand for qualified teachers has occasioned a keen competition among the cities and townships surrounding New York. So great has been the demand for qualified teachers, that even with the liberal salaries paid, it has been difficult to get them. The relatively high salary schedule of New York City has forced all nearby cities to increase salaries correspondingly, or lose many, if not all, of their best teachers."

PERCENTAGE OF INCREASE IN SALARIES OF GRADE TEACHERS IN TWENTY LARGE CITIES BETWEEN 1905 AND 1910

City	Per cent.	City	Per cent.
Toledo	41	Newark	20
Baltimore	39	Providence	18
St. Louis	39	San Francisco	17
Jersey City	29	Cleveland	13
Indianapolis	29	Chicago	11
Rochester	29	Louisville	11
Minneapolis	28	Cincinnati	11
Detroit	28	Pittsburg	8
St. Paul	27	New Orleans	8
Milwaukee	25	Philadelphia	6

In this connection it should be noted that Newark and several other large cities have still further salary increases for all of their teachers under consideration.

SALARIES IN NEW YORK.—The women in New York have at last won in their campaign for the equalization of their salaries with that of the men teachers. Their views in the matter were quite contrary to the frankly expressed opinions of Doctor Eliot, who, instead of lecturing in New York on the subject, sent a letter in which he gave the following "two sound reasons" for paying women teachers in the schools lower wages than men: First, with rare exceptions, they do not and cannot do the same work; second, teaching as a temporary occupation for young women is more desirable among the occupations open to women than it is for young men among

Dr. Eliot's Statement

the occupations open to men. Hence, naturally the supply of women for teaching is larger than the supply of men for such places." "I have never seen," writes Doctor Eliot, "a sillier proposition concerning the right conduct of a system of public instruction than the sentence—'The sex of the teacher is of absolutely no importance in education.' It is a perfectly clear result of much experience that men make better teachers for boys over twelve than women do." A more destructive policy, he says, than this one of equalization, which will inevitably reduce the salaries of male teachers, could not be imagined. "The American public schools have already much too large a proportion of women teachers; to lower the salaries of the men will in the long run have the effect of diminishing the number of the men, or reducing their quality, or both."

We sometimes lose sight of the fact in our discussion of the salary question that what we are aiming for is primarily the improvement of service. Hence, such a consideration as equal pay for male and female teachers must resolve itself finally into two questions—Is it desirable for the effectiveness of teaching to have both men and women in the profession? and, if so, What are the effective means of securing the best of each for the calling?

Salaries in Higher Institutions.—According to the *American Educational Review* President Seelye of Smith College takes a firm stand both for higher salaries and for discriminative salaries for teachers in our higher institutions. "It may be a long time before teachers are as well paid for services as men now are in industrial callings," says President Seelye, in his annual report, "and the prospect of a lucrative salary will not of itself attract the right sort of a person to the teacher's profession, but the supply of good teachers will be lacking as long as their salaries are insufficient to give them a decent and comfortable maintenance. As rapidly as the condition of the treasury will permit, the salaries should be increased to meet the increased cost of living. Uniform salaries for

the lower grades of instruction can be readily adjusted and maintained. It is more difficult to do this for professors and associate professors on account of the greater difference in their comparative worth. Some in the same grades are better teachers than others, and in various ways render more valuable service. They could command larger salaries elsewhere, and are likely to be offered larger salaries by other institutions. If the highest type of teacher could always be secured, uniform salaries would follow as a matter of course. At present there are not enough good teachers to meet the demand; and the faculties of most colleges are made up of those who merely pass and of those who are highly prized. While this is the case, although it may make the administration more embarrassing, it seems better to grade the salary according to the merits of the teacher, and to exchange as rapidly as possible indifferent teachers for those who are more satisfactory."

Gradation of Salaries

Salaries in Prussia.—In a monograph on the Higher Grade Schools of Prussia published in the Teachers College Record of Columbia University, Doctor C. William Prettyman calls attention to some interesting facts concerning teachers' salaries as they now exist in Prussia. Among other things he says the Prussian teacher in a higher school "is in many cases better off financially than his American colleague, the college professor. He must, to be sure, wait a rather long time till he reaches the maximum salary, but while he is waiting he need not bother his head about the financial condition of the institution nor live in constant dread of spending his declining years in the poorhouse. As a servant of the state, and all teachers are indirectly state servants, he knows that the state will provide for him when he is no longer able to provide for himself. A realization of this fact gives him a feeling of security which the average American college teacher does not feel and enables him to do his work calmly and patiently."

The following salaries are prescribed for all state institutions and no other public school is allowed to pay less. As a matter of fact many of the city schools pay more:

1. Directors (principals) of complete institutions (in marks):

		Initial.	After 6 years.	Maximum.	Rent allowance.
(*a*)	In Berlin	6600	7800	7800	1800
(*b*)	Elsewhere	6000	7200	7800	900 to 1800
2.	Upper (male) teachers	2700	4100	7200	560 to 1200
	Upper (female) teachers	2000	2800	4200	560 to 1200
3.	Regular (male) teachers	2400	3200	4800	290 to 720
	Regular female teachers	1650	2150	3000	290 to 720
4.	Elementary teachers	1800	2400	4200	290 to 720
5.	Technical male teachers	1800	2400	4200	290 to 720

Pensions

The pension to which all of these teachers are entitled is based on the following provisions: (a) Every teacher who is incapacitated is entitled to a pension after 10 years of service; (b) At the age of 65 every teacher is entitled to a pension; (c) The amount of the pension is based on the entire income, including rent allowance, and is calculated as follows—Between the 10th and 11th year of teaching the pension equals 20/60 of the income—It is increased each year by 1/60 till the pension equals 40/60 of the income, after which there is no further increase; (d) There is likewise a pension for widows and orphans—A widow receives 40/100 of the pension to which her husband would have been entitled at the time of his death; (e) Orphans whose mother is living each receive 1/5 of the widow's allowance—Orphans both of whose parents are dead receive 1/3 of the allowance to which the widow would have been entitled.

Resolutions of N. E. A.—For the purpose of securing a careful general investigation of existing conditions concerning the emoluments and tenure of office of teachers in the United States, the following resolutions were adopted at the meeting of the National Education Association in San Francisco:

Resolved, that the president of the National Education Association be authorized to appoint a committee con-

sisting of seven active members to consider and report to the association its findings and recommendations concerning the salaries, tenure and pensions of teachers; the committee to take into consideration, among other things, the increased cost of living, the increased professional demands upon the time, strength and funds of teachers, and whether the increase in teachers' wages has kept pace with the increase in the wages of other workers, the increase in the cost of living, and the increased demand upon teachers.

Resolved, that the board of directors of this association be and hereby is instructed to set aside and appropriate from the current funds of the association the sum of $3,000, the same to be used, or so much thereof as may be necessary, for the purposes of the investigation and report as directed herein.

Teachers' Pensions

The Carnegie Foundation has found, as a matter of experience in administering their fund for pensioning teachers in the higher institutions of learning, that teachers have a better expectation of life than that indicated in the American mortality tables. In other words, they belong to the people classified by life insurance companies as preferred risks. However, provisions for a retirement fund for teachers must take into account other things beside mortality tables. If retirement is voluntary, a large number of teachers do not apply for it for some time after the age and experience limits have been reached. In the United States, owing to the large percentage of female teachers, many leave the profession before they are entitled to a pension. Consequently, the advice given by actuaries themselves to the Trustees of the Carnegie Foundation, at the beginning of their administration of the fund, seems to have been well considered: "The problem is," they said, "only partly actuarial. No man can possibly predict what will happen under any assumed

method of retirement. Frame your rules according to your judgment of what will best serve the interests of the teachers within the general estimates indicated. Reserve carefully the power to amend your rules of retirement as circumstances may require, and go forward to acquire such experience as will enable you to make permanent and final rules."

Some of the principles that in the judgment of the Trustees best serve the interests of teachers are:

Pension Principles

1. The retiring allowance must come to the teacher as a right and in accordance with fixed rules.

2. It should form a fair proportion of his active pay and a larger proportion of small salaries than of large ones; a condition which the Trustees met by paying the same proportion of the first thousand dollars of active pay to all.

3. The retiring allowance should be available at some fixed age and after some stated period of service.

4. Some account should be taken of disability.

5. The retiring allowance system should embrace in its provisions the widows of teachers who, under the rules, had become eligible to retiring allowances.

The age limit fixed by the Carnegie Trustees is 65 and the minimum service limit is 15 years. The normal service period is 25 years. For each additional year above 25, the retiring allowance is increased by one per cent. of the active pay. They also provide for the retirement of teachers of long service who have become broken in health. Their reason for this is stated as follows: "Among the most pathetic cases in the profession of the teachers and those most embarrassing to the colleges themselves have been the ones in which teachers have, after faithful service, broken in health and found themselves with approaching age practically helpless."

PROFESSIONAL STANDING

The Health of the Teacher

H. F. Spinney, in a recent issue of the *School Journal*, has touched upon a more important point than is apt to be realized by the teacher and the community, and that is the vital connection between the good health of the teacher and effective teaching. He says in part "I have taught school when my health was at low ebb, and I have also taught when I felt filled with all of the energy of a sound body; and I am convinced beyond the shadow of a doubt, that the teaching I did in the former instance was worse than no teaching at all. No teaching is of avail unless backed up by intense enthusiasm. The first essential of enthusiasm is a sound mind in a sound body. The weakling may have spasmodic fits of enthusiasm; but the kind of enthusiasm that counts is the kind that holds fast day after day, morning and afternoon, in sunshine and in cloudy weather."

Teaching, Its Advantages and Disadvantages

The attention of the public has been focussed upon the teacher and the teacher's calling to such an extent during the past year, that the editor of *Education* deemed it timely to make a brief summary for its readers of the advantages and disadvantages of the teacher's position. This summary is as follows:

ADVANTAGES.—It is an altruistic calling which finds its highest inspiration in service for others and not primarily for self. Its satisfactions are like those of the ministry, the medical profession, the philanthropist and social worker—as full of inspiration and durable satisfaction as any occupation or profession in the world. It affords from the very first a fairly good social standing. Its rewards are immediate, while in many forms of work these do not come in full for some years. "The hours of labor are not taxing, five or six hours a day, with several vaca-

tions, one of which covers the entire heated term in the summer." This, of course, takes no account of the hours spent outside the class-room by the progressive, conscientious teacher, in preparation for class-room work, in the development of greater ability, and in correlated lines of effort for human uplift. In many places the teacher's term of office is permanent during the period of efficiency; and at the age limit there is honorable retirement and a fair pension. "It is also an advantage of considerable moment that the teacher is constantly associated with young life. This is pleasant and inspiring and it keeps one fresh, young, alert and responsive."

DISADVANTAGES.—It affords an insufficient financial reward as compared with most professions and businesses. "The teacher must, at the outset, relinquish the expectation of being rich in this world's goods." The editor does not enter into the question of the gain to the public in making the teacher financially comfortable, so that there need be no division of his interests or wasting of his energy in providing ways and means, outside his profession, for securing a comfortable living. "There are the annoyances and trials incident to all forms of public service—such as lack of appreciation, captious criticism by ignorant parents, school-boards, and town orators." There are insubordinate and stupid pupils to deal with, and many discouragements in the daily routine that call for great patience, forbearance, and endurance. The work is in-doors in an atmosphere apt to be vitiated by pupils coming from all sorts of environment. The work is taxing to the nervous system. Although the actual classroom hours are relatively short, they call for an exceptional amount of nerve strength and physical vigor.

The whole matter is then summed up in the one thought that teaching, as a profession, measures up to a high standard of attractiveness for "a constantly increasing number of true men and women who wish to make their lives count for the good of man and the glory of God."

Higher Recognition for the Teacher

Walter E. Ranger, Commissioner of Education for the State of Rhode Island, emphasizes in *Education* for May the importance of higher recognition on the part of the public for the teacher and the teacher's work. Among other things, he says that the question involves not only important professional interests but also the very efficiency of the teacher's public service. There is personal discontent and the magnifying of economic inequality. But this need not concern us so much as a general dissatisfaction among teachers that tends to develop the habit of apologizing for being teachers, and of warning prospective teachers against the unhappy lot in store for them. If this attitude of teachers deters good men and women from entering upon the calling, then the question becomes one of general public concern.

In all vocations recognition tends to respond to merit and the laborer would get this recognition if there were perfect social and industrial freedom. But, unfortunately, in a highly organized industry or profession there are many checks upon this general law. In case of teaching this can be accounted for if we remember, in the first place, that for many years it was a subordinate function of the ministry and whatever public recognition it received was because it wore the robes of another profession. In the second place, public education is scarcely a century old and we have hardly yet escaped the narrowness of aristocratic ideas in education. In other words, the education of the few still attracts us, while the education of the many is apt to be regarded as a lower service. From its supreme value to society, it is within the latter that really lies the higher recognition and honor of the teacher. In the third place, teaching will not receive its highest recognition until well defined professional standards are required. We are still suffering from the poor teaching of the past and

Causes of Lack of Recognition

from low professional standards that have not entirely disappeared. But there have been great gains within recent years which the public has not yet realized. For example, in Rhode Island at present, more than 75 per cent. of the teachers have been professionally trained; 60 per cent. of them have been trained in normal or training schools of the first rank, and 15 per cent. are graduates of colleges and have either taken courses in education or have passed examinations in professional subjects. Of the remaining 25 per cent., many have taken partial courses in normal schools, most are graduates of secondary schools, and less than thirty teachers have a lower degree of preparation. An interesting feature in Rhode Island is that the number of male teachers has increased 20 per cent. in the last five years.

A fourth cause of a lack of high recognition is the fact that so many take it up as only a temporary employment. "Permanency, as well as efficiency in teaching, is a condition of high recognition." A few of the minor causes are: (1) The distinction that is apt to be drawn between the attainments of teachers in the higher institutions and those in the elementary schools, regardless of the qualifications of the latter; (2) this has led many teachers to seek recognition from colleges for scholarship rather than from the public for excellence of service; (3) teachers often seek personal honor in other directions than in their own service; (4) some have little regard for the reputation of their calling because they do not respect it as a life-work.

"High culture and efficient service have economic and social values and should command high recognition in salary and social position." The consciousness of self-honor and of the personal culture apt to come from the work is some reward. But the economic rewards should be something more than merely adequate for a modest living and reasonably secure. They should be adequate for the generous living that is in keeping with the needs

of personal culture and the social requirements of the times. A remark of a teacher is significant in this connection: "I'm going abroad this summer; but I never dared to think of such a thing till the state provided pensions for us teachers."

Perhaps more discontent arises from the want of social recognition than from any other cause. As the social amenities are not easily met by those with meager incomes teachers are largely debarred from society. The greater their intelligence and culture and the more refined their taste, the more they feel their social limitations.

How to Secure Higher Recognition

Higher recognition may be secured by removing conditions, such as the following, for which teachers themselves are responsible: (1) They must keep the public schools true to democratic ideals. (2) Poor teaching must be eliminated. (3) Higher standards of preparation must be demanded. (4) Teachers should recognize more clearly the integrity of their service and the honor of their profession, and observe professional conduct more faithfully. (5) There is need of better fellowship and more unity of purpose and endeavor. It should also be furthered by demonstrating that higher recognition is due to teaching because: (1) School education is the most important public interest. (2) The state sets the standards of professional qualifications and should give recognition commensurate with those standards. (3) Teachers are in the service of the public and deserve liberal public support. (4) Higher recognition is necessary to secure the best men and women for the service. (5) Public needs constantly tend toward greater demands upon the preparation and service of the teachers, and these demands should be compensated for by higher recognition.

Improvement in Teaching

Doctor Faunce of Brown University, in a recent article in *Education*, calls attention to the fact that an increas-

ingly large number of well prepared, high-minded, vigorous, unselfish men and women are entering upon teaching as a life-occupation. This is as it should be; for "What education needs is men and women who will dedicate their lives to it." The school is no place for the "left-overs" from the other callings of the modern world. He also pays a well-deserved tribute to teachers when he says that rarely in this calling are there any persons who fall into disgrace or prove unworthy of the confidence of the community. The great necessity for successful classroom work is a winning personality and a natural enthusiasm that is contagious. It is not so much a question of what we teach as how we teach it and, especially, why we teach it. For the teacher stands as the interpreter—the interpreter of the rich heritage of the past as well as of the meaning of the present and the hope of the future. He stands as the one who is to touch the life and make it glow on the social highway. And he is also the one who is to bring all of the diverse elements of our knowledge and of our beliefs and practices into a well organized whole, so that there may be nothing "Dissevered, discordant and belligerent" in the life. "If our country is saved from industrial chaos, from religious sectarianism, and from outbreaks of racial prejudice, it will be largely through the efforts of devoted teachers in our public and private schools."

Training for Elementary Manual Training

The normal school located at Fitchburg, Mass., has taken up the problem of preparing teachers for manual training work in the grades. The work at present has for its special purpose the training of male teachers to meet the demands for vocational work in the grammar grades. The new courses arranged for this work provide, during the first year, for 6 months of method work in all subjects below the high school, accompanied by observation work in all of the grades but with special attention

being given to the grammar grades. Four afternoons a week are devoted to various forms of industrial work and to directing small groups of pupils in this work. For knowledge and skill, such studies as science, the common applications of power, mechanical drawing, writing specifications and estimating material cost, etc., are followed. As a training in the theory of teaching, psychology and child study, pedagogy, and the history of education are followed throughout the year. In the second year each student is to be given full charge of a class for 14 weeks during the entire day of 6 hours and for the 5 days of each week. During this second year a study will be made of problems of school management.

Better Teachers for High School and College

The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, in its last annual report, makes a plea for better teachers for both the high school and the college. "The most vital need of both secondary school and college—(is) the need for good teachers. The whole question of an efficient secondary school or an inspiring college rests in the end on the intellectual, moral, and social equipment of the teachers." As the most serious business of a modern state is the education of the whole people, great attention must be given to the teaching in all of its schools, whether they be elementary, secondary, industrial, technical, advanced or professional. "Such a complete system of education is expensive, but it is less expensive than ignorance and inefficiency."

The question of securing good teachers is not wholly one of paying good salaries; for there has not yet been given to the proper training of the teacher the careful consideration that its importance demands. In illustration of this, Doctor Pritchett refers to the fact that for high-school and college instructors in history there is, in their training, little distinction made between a course in history and the course for the teachers of history. Most colleges and

many universities announce courses for teachers and then merely relist certain of their ordinary courses. "A course in psychology—a name which covers a number of academic sins—is usually sufficient ground for the announcement of a Department of Education." Besides, in the colleges there is a strong tendency among those who are to become teachers to specialize in a single subject. This is usually accompanied by no supervision when the student becomes a high-school teacher, and, being so utterly untrained, he starts and often continues with no sure conceptions of what constitutes good teaching. In this respect the "Probejahr," spent by young secondary teachers in Germany under the instruction and supervision of competent persons, is a distinct advance over our system, or rather lack of system.

The normal schools, which are more largely interested in the training of teachers for the elementary schools, are also interested in this problem. For they have invaded the province of the high school and are having their functions shared by the colleges. Doctor Pritchett asks three questions which he deems it important to have answered in a way that will meet the situation.

Fundamental Questions

1. What is, at the present time, a fair, and at the same time feasible, course of training for the teacher of the elementary school and of the high school, looking both toward a grounding in the fundamental subject-matter, and in the right training of the candidate in the technique of teaching?

2. What is the function of the normal school in the state system of education, and how ought it to be related to the high school and the college?

3. What part ought the college to take in the training of teachers? Is the school of education as developed in the college an effective place for professional training, and what facilities ought a college to have before undertaking to train teachers?

Psychology

Psychology and the Teacher

The *Teacher's Guild Quarterly* of London contains an account of the discussion at an English educational conference of a question that is likely to attain great prominence in educational circles within the next few years. It is the old question of "What can the psychologist do for the teacher?" This question will become increasingly important because of the increasing value of education in the public mind, and because of the demand that will unquestionably be made upon the school to justify both its subject-matter and its methods, as well as to render an accounting of its results. And all of these shall have to be done in a way that will appeal to the intelligence of the public.

For many years educators relied almost absolutely upon psychology as furnishing the best scientific basis for their practices. But, within the last few years, there has been much insistence upon the fact that education involves instruction in groups and not as individuals, and that the thoughts, feelings and willing of the individual are very largely under the influence of his social group. Hence, individual psychology is of less importance than social psychology, or, at least, we must have social psychology instead of individual psychology as the basis of our educational guidance. But this English discussion centers around a still newer thought, which has also been shaping itself in the minds of some of our American schoolmen. It is whether, after all, we shall not have to find the scientific basis for our work in the new and more complex science of Experimental Pedagogy rather than in any form of psychology alone.

The substance of the English arguments follows. The good teacher is not necessarily a psychologist. This seriously questions the statement made by Welton, "Every true educator is always making use of real psychology," if by real psychology is meant a conscious use of psycho-

logical principles. Perhaps the chief things that the teacher can get from the psychologist, according to this English view, are an appreciation of the amount and importance of individual differences and the correlation of his experiences to prevent him from being the victim of fashion and fad. But, what is more important, some were inclined in the discussion to question the extent to which the applications of psychology are valuable to the teacher, or the extent to which the results of purely experimental psychology can be applied to schoolroom needs. These would place greater emphasis on the new science of experimental pedagogy, by insisting that education has its own peculiar problems which can be successfully solved only by being studied in their setting and by methods worked out on the basis of actual school conditions. "From such a science, still in its infancy, the teacher would get help at every turn."

Helpful Habits.—Walter D. Scott, of the Northwestern University, has written an interesting article for the September issue of *Everybody's Magazine*, calling attention to the value of helpful habits in securing economy of effort. After referring to a young college graduate who surprised experienced mechanical engineers by the greatly increased efficiency he secured from an ordinary group of laborers by drilling them into less wasteful habits of work, Professor Scott proceeds to show the service that a good working knowledge of the psychology of habit can render along all lines of human effort.

"Advance in efficiency," he says, "is dependent upon the presence of well established habits ready for use." For example, no one can improve his style of composing English until the use of his pen has become an automatic habit, thus freeing his mind to attend wholly to what is being composed. Psychology explains this by showing the mutual development of the mind and the nervous system, especially that part of it which we call the brain.

This is better understood when we remember that nervous substance is plastic—which means that although, like a piece of paper, it offers some resistance to adopting a new form, when the new form is once impressed upon it some trace of the impression is always retained. And, just as it is easy for the paper to bend where it has been creased before, it is likewise easy for action to take place in the delicate nerve-cells where it has taken place before. "When an idea has been thought or an act performed many times, the crease or groove is easier than other thoughts or actions, and so this easier one may be said to have become habitual."

Speed as a Habit

As human efficiency depends in part upon the rapidity with which we are able to accomplish our tasks, habit saves time. Habitual acts are performed with the minimum of effort and with a surprising rapidity. The learner on the typewriter at first writes but slowly and with most of his effort concentrated upon the machine. When operating a typewriter has been reduced to the pure habit form, great speed is developed, with scarcely a conscious effort directed toward manipulating the machine. And no adequate speed is possible along any line of effort so long as attention must be given to the succeeding stages of the thought or act. But speed must not be confused with hurried thought or action. "Speed which is habitual is never hurried." In fact, there are many acts of skill which when they reach the habitual stage can be more readily performed rapidly than slowly. For "the speed secured from correct habits is primarily dependent upon the elimination of useless movements and the concentration of energy at the essential point." This is a fact of large importance to both the learner and the teacher. There is much waste in the process of learning because of the bad methods pursued—many of which have become habits. And the teacher and the learner who have acquired the habit of concentrating attention and of laying hold of essentials will, like the

young collegian and his squad of workman, constitute a winning team.

Attention is also called in the article to the fact that our work becomes accurate as well as swift in the degree to which we are able to mechanize it into habits. This is very noticeable in the errors and uncertainty of the learner on the typewriter. It also shows the teacher the importance of drill—interesting drill—if accuracy, celerity, and reliability are to be secured from his pupils. Habit relieves the attention from details. "So long as the performance of an act demands attention this one act is practically all that can be done at that time. As soon as this thing is reduced to habit, it may go on automatically, and the attention may be turned to other things." Habit also reduces exhaustion. Habitual acts execute themselves automatically, provided, of course, everything associated with the accustomed act is in its usual place and order. And the reason that we are apt to become restless and irritated, if things depart from this order, is because the habitual and subconscious is brought into the sphere of conscious effort. "The peace and restfulness of an orderly and systematic household are in part dependent upon the fact that it is only in such a household that we are enabled to turn over to habit the accomplishment of untold recurrent acts."

Accuracy as a Habit

But there is some work that cannot be reduced to habit, and it is well to remember that such work is exhausting and cannot be continued for many hours a day. This is especially true of all work requiring constructive thinking. That the exhaustion from such work may be reduced to the minimum, it is necessary to make automatic and habitual as many of the useful actions embodied in it as possible. In fact, as Professor William James has pointed out, our success and happiness are largely dependent upon making our nervous systems our friends and allies, by doing this and by guarding against growing into ways that are likely to be disadvantageous to us.

And this brings us to the important point of personal habits—a matter that is apt to receive too little attention from the teacher. We are most apt to judge the individual by his personal habits. "Cleanliness and neatness of appearance, the tone and accent of voice, the manner of walking and of carrying the head, and the use of language, are personal habits which are acquired early in life, but which mean much in the chances of success. The manner of eating, of sleeping, and of caring for all of the needs of the body and mind are for most persons mainly a matter of habit, yet to a large extent they determine the condition of health and the length of days." And just here is found an exceedingly valuable pedagogical fact; namely, that we become fond of doing a thing to which we have become habituated and a feeling of discomfort attends a violation of the habit. Promptness and regularity, both in school attendance and in methods of work, when once they have become a habit are sources of satisfaction as well as sources of success to their possessor. But it is also true that habit may create a craving for the bad as well as for the good. And there is grave danger in the fact that the ways to which we have become habituated seem pleasing to us whether they be good or bad.

Personal Habits

Professor Scott refers to the valuable services that such men as Mr. Frank B. Gilbreth are rendering to industry through their studies of occupation habits and their efforts to train workmen into methods that are less wasteful of time and energy and, therefore, productive of larger and better results. After affirming that a proper application of psychology to the efforts of men would increase their efficiency beyond the idle dream of the optimist of the past, he ventures the prophecy that "in the future every establishment employing large numbers of men will find it profitable to employ a practical psychologist," just as now every manufacturing establishment employs its practical chemist. It is at least certainly true that there still re-

mains much to be investigated, discovered and formulated by the psychologist along the lines of economy of effort in the great domain of the teacher and the learner.

Habits of Feeling

One of the many important ideas for the teacher and the parent, advanced by the late Professor William James, was that the real value of any situation or condition in life depends not so much upon the intrinsic worth of the situation as it does upon the feelings which that situation or condition arouses within us. In other words, it is the nature of our feelings rather than the nature of our circumstances that makes life significant for happiness or for unhappiness. This for both teacher and parent means the habit of mind that finds delight in work as well as in recreation. It means the habit of never permitting the thought or possibility of a task or duty becoming a drudgery; a habit of doing the right and of eschewing the wrong and of finding happiness in the right alone; a habit of contentment which is disposed always to make the best of existing conditions and circumstances.

The Injurious Effects of Fear and Anger.—Dr. George Crile of the Western Reserve University, in a recent address, demonstrated that the mind is greatly impaired and the brain cells disintegrated, in emotional persons, through fear and anger. As antidotes for these states of mind he suggested that appeals be made to the same great psychical laws to which their origin is due. In the case of fear and worry, he would have a strong appeal made to the law of self-preservation, the feeling which gives rise to the fear and worry. He said, "I have found that if an intelligent patient suffering from fear is made to see, so plainly as to amount to a firm conviction, that his brain, and indeed his whole being, was physically damaged by fear, this same instinct of self-preservation will, in proportion to his conviction, banish worry and fear. It is hurling a threatened active, militant danger, whose ravages are both certain and known, against an uncertain, perhaps a fancied, one. In other words, fear itself is an

injury which, when recognized, is instinctively avoided." In the same way he would have anger banished and avoided by pointing out the physical injury that it works upon the brain cells.

That children ought to be carefully shielded from the disastrous effects of both fear and anger should be a fundamental law with both parents and teachers. Both of these emotions are degrading, in their influence upon the moral nature as well as upon the body. And while in extreme cases and under abnormal conditions resort to the fear of physical pain seems necessary, it must never be used in a way that tends to undermine the healthful mental and moral conditions of the individual subjected to the punishment. For normal children, and the usual conditions and relations of the family and of the school, love is the one noble attribute that serves as a complete preventive and adequate antidote for both fear and anger.

PART V

CHAPTER VII

SOCIAL PROBLEMS

The Boy Scouts

THE Boy Scout Movement is Anglo-American in its origin. Ernest Thompson Seton started the movement in America and General Sir Robert Baden-Powell gave it its present perfected form in England. Its American originator explains its purpose in the Introduction to his "Boy Scouts of America" as follows: "Every American boy, a hundred years ago, lived either on a farm or in such close touch with farm-life that he reaped its benefits. He had all the practical knowledge that comes from country surroundings; that is, he could ride, shoot, skate, run, swim; he was handy with tools; he knew the woods; he was physically strong, self-reliant, resourceful, well-developed in body and brain. In addition to which he had good moral training at home. He was respectful to his superiors, obedient to his parents, and altogether the best material of which a nation could be made.

"We have lived to see an unfortunate change. Partly through the growth of immense cities, with the consequent specialization of industry, each individual has been required to do one small specialty and shut his eyes to everything else, with the resultant perpetual narrowing of the mental horizon. Partly through the decay of small farming, which would have offset this condition, for each mixed farm was a college of handicraft,

Change in Conditions

and partly through the stereotyped forms of religion losing their hold, we see a different type of youth in the country to-day. It is the exception when we see a boy respectful to his superiors and obedient to his parents. It is the rare exception now when we see a boy who is handy with tools and capable of taking care of himself under all circumstances. It is the very, very rare exception when we see a boy whose life is absolutely governed by the safe old moral standards."

It was in the hope of building up a great army of well-developed, resourceful, self-reliant boys, and thus successfully to combat this tendency to degeneracy, that Ernest Thompson Seton started the movement. He hoped to accomplish this through the clean, sane, and appealing pursuits of woodcraft and scouting. By scouting or scouts he meant the work and interests of "peace-scouts," men accustomed to live on their own resources like the pioneers and explorers, the hunters and the prospectors, the missionaries and all other good men who are brave and helpful in their place in the world. In brief, the whole purpose was to educate boys into manliness and good citizenship by presenting that which is naturally appealing to boy life, and in a way that will lead the boy to be anxious to learn for himself.

Although this purpose is to be fulfilled largely through woodcraft and through the self helpfulness and resourcefulness found by imitating pioneer life, there is a sufficient variety of subjects to be mastered in the plan to give ample employment to every condition of life everywhere, indoors as well as out of doors. For example, the subjects range from scoutcraft, campaigning, and woodcraft,—proficiency in which demands a knowledge of hut and mat making, judging distances and heights, a study of animals, birds, plants, and stars, and the training in observation which is able to note and remember details—all the way through to the kind of knowledge of one's country and of

the ability to help others that will tend towards patriotism, chivalry, and the ability to save lives. That the body of the Boy Scout may be strong and enduring and an effective instrument in all of this work, he is taught to know and to practice the things that tend to personal cleanliness and good health.

One of the prime purposes of the movement being practical character-building, the Boy Scout is expected to try "to do a good turn to somebody every day" and to prove by his words and by his practice his respect and obedience to parents, employers, and the laws of the land. In fact, before he becomes a scout a boy must take the following scout's vow: "On my honor I promise that I will try to do my best: (1) To do my duty to God and my country; (2) To help other people at all times; (3) To obey the Scout Law." The Scout Law embraces such things as: A scout's honor is to be trusted; a scout is loyal to his country, his officers, his parents, and his employers; a scout's duty is to be useful and to help others; a scout is a friend to all, and a brother to every other scout, no matter to what social class the other belongs; a scout is courteous; a scout is a friend to animals; a scout is obedient; a scout smiles and whistles under all circumstances; a scout is thrifty.

Scout's Vow

There are three progressive stages in Scouting. In the first stage the boy is known as a Tenderfoot. After reaching a certain degree of efficiency he becomes a Second Class Scout. And with still greater qualifications he may become a First Class Scout. Each of these classes of scouts has its own badge, and the highest class is required to be especially proficient in all that is expected of a scout. When a boy becomes a First Class Scout, he may gain further recognition in scouting through what are known as Merit Badges. These are conferred for special proficiency in some line of scouting. There are more than fifty varieties of these badges, a sufficient

Classes of Scouts

number to allow a boy to become an expert in the particular line of scouting that most appeals to him.

The boys are organized into Patrols of at least seven boys each. Each patrol elects a leader and a corporal from their own number. Three or more Patrols constitute a Troop, and each troop has an adult leader who is known as its Scout Master. While the scout master need not be an expert in scoutcraft, he should be an expert in boy's ways and deeply interested in boy life, so that he may have ability in leading them and in commanding their respect and obedience. A good Scout Master will also show wisdom in selecting the experts who are to instruct and lead the boys in their various activities. In fact, much of the success of the movement in any locality depends upon the efficiency, loyalty, and personality of the Scout Master. He is the leader of the boys at a time when they are most given to hero worship and when they are most open to good instruction and worthy influence. To capable men who are vitally interested in boys Scouting therefore opens a most promising field of work. For a time it was thought that the Boy Scout movement might interfere with the work of the various religious organizations. But the fact that a number of Sunday Schools and other religious agencies have adopted Scouting as an efficient ally seems to be allaying this fear. That it is regarded as of great value in education is shown by the fact that the University of California has recently added a course in Scoutcraft to its curriculum. The distinct purpose of the course is to train young men to become efficient Scout Masters. This course counts toward a degree just as work in any other department does, and its establishment is a noteworthy recognition of the possibilities of Scoutcraft in that supreme matter, the proper education of our youth.

Advantages

One of the strong pleas made for the Boy Scout movement is that it provides for boys the activities which are suggested by their imaginations. The schools cultivate

and stimulate the imagination, but they seldom supply an outlet for the activities which could satisfy it. Every normal and healthy boy feels the need of adventure, or what his imagination is inclined to look upon as adventure, and, if he does not find harmless and worthy outlets for this desire, he is apt to join the gang or seek an outlet in annoying and possibly dangerous channels. This often brings him in contact with the law with all the dangers of his becoming alienated from worthy society.

The Dramatic Instinct

There has been quite a development during the year of the effort to satisfy the dramatic instincts of both old and young, by bringing dramas and pageants into the social work and into closer touch with the home and within easy financial reach of the great mass of the people. This is evident from the public pageants and out-of-door dramas that here and there have been held, from the general introduction of short plays into the relatively cheap vaudeville performances, and from the great increase of picture-dramas thrown upon the screen in motion picture shows. New York has even gone so far as to consider the question of having professional actors give classical plays in the public schools of the city for the general instruction of pupils and, especially, for the benefit of students in literature. The plays would be given without the somewhat distracting orchestral and scenic effects of the theatre, in the simple style of the Ben Greet or the Coburn players.

Some of the advantages claimed for the pageant and the amateur drama are: (1) They furnish satisfying intellectual amusement; (2) They encourage production and action and thus satisfy the productive impulse and the love of dramatic action that have heretofore received so little consideration in the schools—our school-work has been so largely that of the reproductive memory and critical reasoning that we have neg-

Advantages of Drama and Pageant

lected these interesting and highly fruitful forms of the play instincts; (3) Instruction and pleasure of the highest possibility are found in these forms of recreation, which so forcibly portray life and the lessons of living; (4) Unsuspected aptitude for acting and dramatization is often revealed in these pageants and amateur theatricals.

Motion Pictures.—When it is remembered that there are now at least 12,000 "motion picture" places in the United States, 600 of them being licensed in New York alone, and that they have an average daily attendance of between four and five million people, twenty per cent. of whom are children, their power for good or evil can readily be appreciated. That this popular form of entertainment can be made a means of education and culture is everywhere recognized. That it can be fruitful in setting up false standards of life and in presenting scenes that excite morbid appetites and offer dangerous suggestions to excitable imaginations, is also well known. All immoral pictures and films that portray crime should be rigidly suppressed. In accomplishing this, the Board of Censorship located in New York—an entirely voluntary committee composed of thirty members, men and women, who give their time and labor without compensation—have rendered excellent service. Hundreds of films have been rejected by them, and to the praise of the manufacturers it must be said that they have never refused to abide by the decisions of the Board, even though suppressed films mean a large money loss to them.

Board of Censorship

But the work of the Board of Censorship is not entirely that of passing judgment upon films. It attempts also to show the possibilities of the motion picture as an educational force. For this purpose, it arranges exhibitions intended especially to emphasize the important help such pictures can render in the fight for proper sanitation and against disease and in life-like portrayals of civil, political, and moral actions. Every effort is made by the Board to raise the motion picture movement above mere com-

mercialism and into a field of broader usefulness as an educative and reformatory agency. As an illustration of specific educational value, the following use for motion pictures has been found by the medical profession: Views illustrating the gait, station, tremors, and other symptoms of the various forms of nervous disease are found to be extremely helpful to actual practitioners as well as to the students of medicine. Many of these diseases present very marked typical symptoms; others are varied and obscure. And only physicians of the widest possible experience could ever otherwise hope to come into sufficient knowledge of all the forms of these manifestations that might be helpful in a diagnosis.

Motion Pictures in Schools.—There is an added advantage in being able to present to the eye movement as well as form. The motion picture makes it possible to satisfy the natural desire for dramatization and the presentation of life-problems in as realistic a form as possible. A serious obstacle to the frequent employment of dramatic presentation for educational purposes is the expense for scenery, professional performers, etc. This the motion picture remedies by its reproductions for hundreds of people, in hundreds of places, at a comparatively small cost after the original film is made. The possibilities of film reproduction cover a very broad field, as historical, dramatic, scientific subjects, and both daily and special occurrences at home and abroad—all can be recorded and reproduced. That the motion picture will be made an effective implement of formal school work is becoming evident. The expense of preparing proper films is already taking form commercially—being dependent upon the rental they will bring through their general introduction.

Public Libraries

The chief duty of the public library is to place good reading matter within easy access of the masses and to

encourage an intelligent, as well as a free, use of this means of increasing the satisfactions of life. In order to secure the best use of the library, it is well to begin by educating the children to make good use of books. This does not mean that adults are to be neglected either in providing them with books or in instructing them in the use of books. It simply means that it is easier to guide and fashion the literary taste of the child than it is to reshape the inclinations in regard to reading of the adult. Wisdom in library management demands an adjustment of the library to the needs of the whole community it is intended to serve. Nationality, religion, occupations, and conditions of life—all must be taken into account in the selection of books and in placing them as favorably and conveniently as possible before the people for their use. As the public library has become an important factor in the general cause of social improvement, it is especially important that the influence of good books be carried into the homes of children of few opportunities and still less advantages.

The Library and the School

In laying the foundations for such work, the library finds its best ally in the public school. In return the library can be made one of the most helpful allies of the school. Their combined efforts should produce a large percentage of intelligent self-helpful readers, who read for the pleasure as well as the profit that they find in books. Some of the means employed to develop interest in books are the story hour, reading circles, picture bulletins, and lectures upon the various branches of human knowledge that have been recorded in books. One of the great advantages of the public library over the home library is its possibilities of supplying a more or less complete treatment of any branch of human knowledge. Another advantage is the broader scope of subjects found on the shelves of the public library, with its greater likelihood of having something that will appeal to every bent of interest. However,

browsing among the books of a library on the part of young people needs to be done under intelligent and sympathetic guidance.

But all whom it is important to place under the influence of good books cannot be directly reached either by the school or by the library. They have already left the school and are never found within the library. One of the most effective means of reaching such persons has been worked out in Pittsburg, which has an exceptionally large foreign population with a relatively large number of young people working in mills and factories. For the purpose of reaching these young people, a division of library work has been organized which carries "home libraries" and reading clubs into the alleys and out-of-the-way places. In this work it coöperates with various institutions for social betterment. A "home library" consists of a small case of books which may be placed in a child's home. At a stated time each week, a group of children of the neighborhood are gathered into the home and a visitor from the library gives out the books and, by reading or story telling or talking about pictures or in other ways, makes the "library hour" pass pleasantly and profitably for the children. The teaching of sewing or basketry or the teaching of games forms a legitimate part of this library hour, although its main purpose is the development of an intelligent interest in books. With groups of older persons, cooking and more advanced sewing, as well as problems of nursing, hygiene, etc., form part of the work. The visitor from the library becomes in large measure the personal friend and social benefactor of the groups she visits.

Another field of work for the library force in Pittsburg is found in the efforts to get hold of the boys' "gangs" which are so prone to devour trashy and exciting literature. In order to reach these gangs, rooms have been provided, in different parts of the city, by the educational authorities coöperating with

The Library and Boys' Gangs

various charitable and philanthropic bodies, and supplied with free heat, light, and janitor service. The boys are organized into reading and game clubs, and reading aloud, story telling, and the playing of games are made some of the attractive features to hold the boys. For this, and indeed for all successful efforts with children, are needed: sympathy with children and respect for them and all that they may be; strength of character; a pleasing, genial nature; readiness in reading character; adaptability; a quick and accurate mind; and above all a strong and saving sense of humor. This means careful training for the work, and no library movement will reach any great success as a social or intellectual force in a community that wastes time, money, and efforts by the employment of people who are untrained and therefore neither know the problems involved nor how to solve them.

Public Schools as Social Centers

The doors of our public school buildings are no longer closed for half the year. These buildings represent too great an outlay of the money of the people and are too well located and too well equipped for general educational purposes to be closed to the community at four o'clock each day, on Saturdays and Sundays, and during the entire summer vacation. So the movement for a wider use of the school plant is rapidly spreading. And the movement is carrying with it the possibilities of a systematic influence upon the intelligence and social life of the people. This should mean much both for the dignity and influence of the school and for the amalgamation and increased power of all of the social forces at work in the community. One of the richest legacies left us by the last century was the demonstration, in its later years, of the supreme value of combined and well-organized effort. And no other institution can offer the breadth of platform or intensity of appeal for cooperative effort that the public school can offer. Here center the interests of parents of all nation-

alities, all creeds, and all degrees of social rank; for the school stands for the highest possibilities of the child of the home. And with this wider opening of its doors is coming a fuller realization of this truth, as well as a reopening of closed doors of opportunity for the parents themselves.

Wider Use of the School Plant.—Right principles and management should underlie this wider use of the school plant.

The following declaration by the N. E. A., at its 1911 meeting, is well worth consideration as an embodiment of the fundamental ideas which should underlie a proper use of any large public school plant in these days: "The school buildings of our land, and the grounds surrounding them, should be open to the pupils and to their parents and families as recreation centers outside of the regular school hours. They should become the radiating centers of social and cultural activity in the neighborhood, in a spirit of civic unity and coöperation, omitting, however, all activities and exercises tending to promote division or discord. They should give opportunity for continuation schools, vacation schools, and for industrial, horticultural, and agricultural training, as well as for the education of adults through lectures and through school and college extension classes." N. E. A. Declaration

The statement is then made that, in order to give health security to the children who use the school plant for so many hours during the day, proper medical inspection and proper sanitary conditions must be maintained. This, and the maintenance of a healthy educational atmosphere, necessitate that all such activities must be kept under the absolute control of the school authorities.

Teachers as Social Workers.—Not only have we entered upon an era in which the school is an important social agency, but it seems entirely safe to predict that the day is not far distant when teachers shall be the most efficient social workers, and shall have to assume much

of the control and guidance of this work if it is to be most effectively done. This will be the natural consequence of the teacher's exceptionally favorable position for learning the real conditions of the home, as well as his training for truly knowing the children of the home and their real needs. This means, of course, that the teacher is looming up ever more prominently as an important and necessary factor in all social progress. No profession in these days calls for a higher type of character and training than that of teaching. And the community that recognizes this and makes possible the securing and retaining of efficient teachers will guarantee to itself the highest promise for its future.

The Home and the School

One of the most interesting developments in school affairs that has occurred within recent years is the movement for bringing the home and the school into a more intelligent and sympathetic relationship. The associations that have sprung up as a result of this movement are merely the outward expression of a desire to do the best for the child of the home, who is also by educational adoption the child of the school. There is a rapidly growing recognition of the need of this closer league of the home and the school. Difference of aim, method, and interest—division in the ideals and practices of the home and the school—is almost as fatal to the welfare of the child as are such divisions between father and mother in the home itself. Only through an intelligent combination of the effort of the home and the school can the child attain to its natural measure of growth. In child development normal operation demands hearty coöperation.

But it is becoming quite clear that to foster intelligent coöperation between the home and the school there is an absolute necessity that the home must know more about the methods of child training. There is also need for both the home and the school to get a better perspective of the relation of the child to the civic life of which it is

a part. For the child is already a citizen—a citizen whose chief duty is that of developing knowledge and power and of training these for their best possible use in the service of his fellows. One of the advantages of this leaguing together of the home and the school is the possibility it offers of a well-arranged, systematic study of the things that touch the life of the child. Such a study should make for appreciative, upright, intelligent citizenship.

Effects of Criticism

"Whether the child feels that the family is in sympathy and pays homage to the authority of the teacher or whether he knows that the school is treated at home as a negligible quantity makes a world of difference." The average American is proud of the educational system of his country, but his pride sometimes manifests itself in political discussions instead of in needed control of the attitude of his own children toward the school. "The same average American treats the school for his boys and girls as a bore and a burden and thoughtlessly and almost recklessly does his best to undermine in his children the respect for the authority of the teacher." "Good schools are not built from the taxes which the parents pay, but much more from the respect for the teacher which they implant in the minds of their children." Auto-suggestion plays an important part here. The feeling of unity between home and school has a strong auto-suggestive influence on the mind of the pupil.

Importance of the Home

The home has undoubtedly the greatest influence of all of the five important factors which control the formation of character. Of these five factors—the home, the school, the state, the church, and the vocation—the kind of home in which the child lives bears most directly upon its habits and its ideals. On this subject, ex-President Roosevelt has said, "Nothing outside of the home can take its place. The school is an invaluable adjunct to the home, but it is a wretched substitute for it. The family relation is the

most fundamental, the most important of all relations. No leader in church or state, in science or art or industry, however great his achievement, does work which compares in importance with that of the father and the mother."

This being true, the household arts and the keeping of a good home become the most important things in all human endeavor. And the housekeeper who sees that the family has healthful food, properly cooked; that the children of the home are as well cared for and as carefully trained as their importance in the social economy demands; that as much thought is given to the spending of money as to the earning of it—the housekeeper who in all things reflects her intelligence and her love in those around her, multiplies her power and her goodness as many times as does the moral and intellectual reach of all who come under her influence in the home. The school has recently extended its work so as to give organized instruction and training to girls for their possible future homekeeping. This is adding greatly to the understanding and appreciation of the homekeeping arts. And with the general selection and organization of the material for this work as it is imbedded in the lives of the girls in school, should come a large replacing of the deficiencies of the home and a more rational management where now so much is haphazard and traditional.

Training for Home-making

The need most emphasized by the Child Welfare Exhibit held in New York early in 1911 was for good homes for the children. There is an element of truth in the charge that the school is infringing upon the duties of the home and to that extent weakening the influence of the home upon child life. As the home is fundamental to progress as well as to child-welfare, we shall no doubt soon be centering many of our educational influences upon it with the specific purpose of putting back within its doors certain influences which we have been taking away from it. The Child Welfare Exhibit forcibly illustrated some things that might be done in the home to

Child Welfare Exhibit

make it a place into which it is safe for a child to be born. The fundamental things were that it must be a place where the child has proper air and light, nutritious food, sufficient clothing, and a safe and healthful place to play; that parents must be educated to be true parents and that mothers be protected from exposure and overwork; and, finally, that higher wages among wage-earning families are essential if we would have "a better crop of boys and girls." When, as one of the exhibits proclaimed, we recognize the fact that the production of "human wealth" is vastly more important than the production of "material wealth," then we shall see the necessity of a higher standard of living than is now possible in New York families where such things occur as making artificial violets for two cents a gross and the knotting of the filaments of "willow plumes" at the rate of forty-two filaments for a cent. To the end that the home become a better home, the exhibit showed that in large cities, and under existing prices and standards of life, an income of at least $900 per year is essential.

By way of emphasizing the influence of home and other environment upon the welfare of the child, Judge William H. De Lacy, of the Juvenile Court of Washington, D. C., recently said: "When we provide for ourselves a broad, clean street, a good sewerage system, better housing conditions, adequate employers' liability laws, efficient regulation of the liquor traffic, good municipal administration and accounting, we are also planning for the child's welfare in these same matters. There is not a city movement but has its effects upon the children. We must provide good schools and see that the child is mentally and physically well prepared for life. We, however, often neglect the proper training of the heart. There must be plenty of playgrounds and open spaces, or else we will have to increase our jail facilities for the culprits which the city itself makes." He also suggested that the special tribunal to try children's cases might more appropriately be called

the Family or Parental Court and, with great advantage, extend its jurisdiction over neglectful, criminal, or careless parents, as well as over violators of the child-labor laws.

Instruction of Parents

The normal school located at Bellingham, Wash., has introduced a line of work with parents that is proving very helpful and educationally profitable. The general purpose of the movement is to bring some of the opportunities and, to a limited extent, the actual training work of the normal school within the reach of the parents of the public school children of the place. Although the work of the normal school pertains directly to the preparation of would-be teachers, the faculty of the Bellingham State Normal School desire to be helpful to parents as well as to their own pupils, and have organized this Extension Department for that purpose. For the work of the department the library and museum of the school, the maps, charts, mounted photographs, stereopticon, etc., are all used. The instruction is in the form of lectures and familiar talks. Some of the addresses given have been on the following subjects: Educational Problems on the Pacific Coast; Education after Four o'clock; The Boy —His Environment; The Story—Its Value in the Home; Hygiene in Home and School; Agricultural Education; Punishment and its Relation to Discipline; Amusements; The Duty of Health; The Mental World of the Child; Forestry in the Country School; Beautifying the Home and School; The Call of Young America, etc.

Child Culture Bulletins

The spread of valuable information through small pamphlets, which has been so successfully carried on by State and National departments, has suggested to the State Normal School of Valley City, N. D., the possibilities of imparting to parents much needed help in regard to the training of their children. The conviction that

many fathers and mothers are so engrossed in social and material problems that they unconsciously neglect to keep in touch with the special aid that child specialists are prepared to render the average household, has led to the periodical preparation of helpful "Child Culture Bulletins" by the specialists of the department of pedagogy of the above institution.

The character of these bulletins will be appreciated from the following references to the one that deals with "The Child, a Habit-Forming Animal." The age of 18, as has been shown both by experience and demonstrated by physiological psychology, marks the period when habits are apt to become fixed. Professor James said that about this time the brain is apt to begin to set like a plaster cast. These facts point to the importance of efforts to root out bad habits and to implant good ones before the age of fixity is reached. Some of the desirable habits indicated in the leaflet are: Habits favorable to the growing organism, such as regular bathing, a reasonable degree of personal neatness as shown by keeping the hair combed and wearing clean linen; habits of desiring pleasant home evenings instead of seeking evening pleasure on the street; habits of erect carriage, clear enunciation and good English; habits of memorizing short selections of literature, of attendance at religious worship, of outdoor tramps and exercises, of handiwork with tools and machines, of singing, of the practice of kindness and generosity to others; and habits of saving. Habits that are unfavorable to the growing organism are also mentioned.

Two Rules

Professor Bains' two rules on habit-forming that have almost become classic among psychologists, and which should be everyday working principles with teachers and parents, are referred to as:

1. In the acquisition of a new habit or the leaving off of an old one, launch yourself with as strong and decided a start as possible.

2. Never suffer an exception to occur until the new habit is established.

A Sane Fourth of July

Lee F. Hanmer, of the Russell Sage Foundation, has an article in the May issue of the *World's Work* which calls attention in a very convincing way to the advantages of a "safe and sane" celebration of Independence Day and, at the same time, indicates some of the interesting ways in which the day can be so commemorated. He says that in 1909, seventeen cities for the first time definitely planned and carried out organized celebrations of Independence Day. And while the extra amount of pleasure afforded by the plan cannot be estimated the lowered number of casualties can, for they were thereby reduced from 1452 for the 17 cities to 451. These cities had all tried without success various restrictive measures; for the small boys were not to be denied their fireworks and fun in that way. So successful was the new plan, however, that, in 1910, twenty-eight cities organized their Independence Day celebrations on the safe and sane plan.

"The element in the celebrations in 1910 which uniformly brought the desired results, was the planning of a definite programme of wholesome, interesting, and comparatively safe activities, that held the attention of both children and adults throughout the entire day." The thought had been emphasized that, appalling as had in previous years been the casualties and the losses by fire on the anniversary day of American independence, they were, after all, of less moment than the loss resulting from neglect of the opportunity that the great holiday affords for inspiring patriotism in the people, and for teaching the boys and the girls, and especially those coming from other lands to make America their home, the great lesson of freedom, independence, and the high privilege of citizenship.

The Greatest Loss

The words of Rabbi Krauskopf, of Philadelphia, concerning the proper celebration of Independence Day are well worth consideration by all who are anxious to have

the nation return to a sane Fourth of July: "Little did the founders of our nation dream that a time would come when people would look forward to the coming of the Fourth of July with dread and horror, as a day likely to bring suffering and bereavement to the family, a day on which to flee friends and neighbors and seek refuge in some retreat far away from the deafening din and sickening noises, from the life and health and property endangering fireworks, which, in our day, are taking the place of the onetime dignified and inspiring celebration of the birthday of our independence. It is high time that we begin in real earnest to make the anniversary of the birth of our political independence a day of patriotic inspiration, a day to be especially devoted to casting our eyes back over the past, and around upon the present, and forward to the future, a day for rededicating ourselves to all that is highest and best in our national life. It is high time that we make it the 'Glorious Day' our fathers meant it to be, instead of the inglorious day it has become, the annual day of slaughter of innocents, the day of conflagrations, the day of compulsory self-exile, the day of agony for the sick and feeble." Rabbi Krauskopf's Words

One of the best results that is growing out of the saner celebration of Independence Day is the idea that serving the public in the ways of peaceful occupation may be as heroic and useful as are the valorous deeds of war. Braving hardship and serious danger in defence of one's country will always deserve a high measure of praise; but the daily struggles connected with living usefully and honorably, and without the uniform, the martial music, and the crowds, are the ones upon which the highest welfare of the nation depends. And the day is rapidly approaching when the ceremony and the procession and the honor shall be for those who carry on constructive rather than destructive arts.

CONSERVATION AND THE DEVELOPMENT OF NATURAL RESOURCES

Arbor Day

In the Wisconsin Arbor and Bird Day Annual for 1911, compiled by O. S. Rice and issued by State Superintendant Cary, are found some very practical suggestions for making the celebration of this day by the schools of real value to the cause of education. "In the various branches the teacher may well be on the lookout for topics related to conservation. When, for instance, Germany is studied in the geography class, the statement that one-fourth of the area of this country is covered by forests should not simply be a statement and nothing more. What the forest policy of Germany is, how it is carried out, and what the results are would furnish the basis for discussion vitally related to the problem of forest preservation in our own country. Too often, the study of soils in physical geography is confined to the definition of soil, the different kinds of soil, and how they are formed. That such instruction is valuable would be hard to prove. But how different would be the case if these topics were followed by a discussion of the exhaustion of the soil, what this exhaustion will mean to the nation if it is allowed to go on, and what plans are being used to prevent it. Current news relating to forest fires, water powers, coal lands, and other problems of conservation can be made use of in an effective way to create intelligence on questions which citizens in general must in the long run decide."

Practical applications of the instruction given are also suggested. Such as the beautifying of both the school grounds and the home grounds and, to enlist interest in birds, the erection of bird boxes to attract the feathered songsters who, through interest in their songs and habits, may then have an opportunity to make an effective appeal for themselves. Especially, should interest in bird-life lead to many voluntary prom-

Practical Results

ises on the part of the older girls never to wear a hat decorated with feathers which have necessitated the slaying of a bird. The German thought, that whatever is desirable to introduce into the life of the nation is best introduced through the schools, is of especial force here.

THE PUBLIC HEALTH

The Health of the Child

In an article in the *Outlook* for April 22, 1911, the famous physician, Earl Mayo, lays down the following preventive measures for safeguarding the health of the child:

(1) The careful inspection and supervision of milk from the point of production to the place of consumption.

(2) Similar inspection and supervision of food products, particularly fruits, candies, and vegetables sold in the poorer quarters of cities. This is almost universally neglected. Cheap candy, covered with the dirt of floors and pavement, and food which has been left lying about and over which swarms of flies have trooped, are fruitful sources of diarrhœal diseases.

(3) The instruction of mothers in the elementary principles of the care and feeding of children. "This is most important of all, for intelligent care often will overcome all obstacles to the successful rearing of children, and nothing else will take its place."

This instruction of mothers should be supplied systematically and universally, and not as a matter of spasmodic philanthropic effort. "A simple and inexpensive measure for disseminating information of this sort suggests itself as part of the new movement to make of the public schools social centers of use to all the people." And Dr. Mayo might well have added that the essential elements of such instruction should be given to girls before the school releases its hold upon them, for most of them are destined to become the mothers or caretakers of children.

An experienced health officer asserts that 70 per cent. of all children entering school are not physically what they should be. Although roughly speaking school-days represent the healthiest period of life, this physical condition furnishes a serious handicap upon the growing child. If, then, mothers and prospective mothers can be trained so as to eliminate much of this physical incompetency, a great social and economic gain will follow.

Doctor of Public Health

The University of Michigan has authorized a new medical course which is a direct outgrowth of the growing interest in questions of public health. The course will cover two years and will open to students who have graduated from approved medical schools. Those who complete the course will be granted a degree as Doctor of Public Health. The purpose of the course is to train men for positions on Boards of Health in municipalities and for all general public health service. An engineering knowledge of problems of heating, ventilating, drainage, etc., is a valuable part of the course, as it assists in remedying unsanitary conditions as they are revealed by the student's knowledge of bacteriology, pathology, and chemistry, and his training in food and water analysis.

The House Fly

Nothing better illustrates the changing attitude of the people at large on questions affecting the public health than does the vigorous campaign inaugurated during the year for the extermination of the house fly. In fact, this common pest of our summer days no longer bears the name of "house-fly," which formerly gave him something of an official standing in our homes, but now is coming more and more to bear the more fitting name of "typhoid fly." For now that we know that he is a very industrious carrier of disease germs, we are denouncing him and endeavoring to exterminate him just as we do the mosquito.

A campaign in this direction was carried on most vigorously in Washington, D. C. One of the daily papers there is carrying on what it calls "a flyless city campaign." As a result millions of flies were destroyed in that city. But what is of vastly greater importance such favorite breeding places of the fly as stables, manure and refuse heaps, gutters, uncovered garbage pails, and all places where decaying substances are apt carelessly to be left, have been the subject of effective care. As a result, the capital of our country was almost a flyless city during the summer months. However, owing to the multitude of flies and the rapidity with which they breed, it is only through the greatest vigilance exercised over these breeding places everywhere that they can be entirely exterminated. At least one good result of the campaign is being accomplished, and that is the widespread effort to screen the fly from the interior of houses and from contact with foodstuffs, whether in the home or in the store.

GIFTS

The year 1911 surpassed all of its predecessors in its public benefactions. According to the *New York Sun* the gifts made public were more than double those of 1910 and reached the magnificent sum of $260,000,000. Of this amount approximately $13,000,000 were donated directly to educational purposes, $83,500,000 to the general social purposes, and the remainder to various specific causes.

The largest amount given was the $25,000,000 deeded by Mr. Carnegie to the Carnegie Corporation of New York, "to promote the advancement and diffusion of knowledge and understanding" among the people of the United States. The specific purpose of this fund is to make permanent and continue "the business of founding and aiding libraries and educational institutions"—the great work that has been so magnanimously carried on by Mr. Carnegie. Mr. James Patton, who has been a leader

in the fight against tuberculosis, gave $4,000,000 to this general purpose and $2,000,000 to the Northwestern University for research work along the same line. He also gave an additional $500,000 for special research work into the causes and prevention of tuberculosis in Mexico, with a large additional amount for the education and protection of the children of what he calls the "pathetic classes" there. Mr. Patton emphasized the spirit of the true philanthropist in these gifts when he said "a man should dispose of great wealth for the benefit of the community, social service being the one thing in life."

The contributions to Catholic educational institutions exceeded $13,000,000; the sum of $51,000,000 was collected by various Protestant missionary societies, of which sum $11,000,000 was devoted to the foreign fields.

CHAPTER VIII

SOCIAL PROBLEMS—CONTINUED

MORALS AND RELIGION

Morals

THERE are certain elemental virtues that can and should be taught into the life in childhood and youth. And if these virtues are presented to young people in a way that makes them appear desirable rather than repugnant, there is no difficulty in arousing interest in them. That there are methods of making moral lessons attractive has been demonstrated too often to be questioned. But it cannot be done through mere dry sermonizing or through tacking a moral teaching to the end of a fable or an historical illustration. Unless the fable and the fact point their own moral in the telling, they have lost their purpose as ethical material. History and contemporary life, tales calculated to stir admiration and present ideals of conduct, and the many valuable stories that can be gleaned from classical authors—all of these furnish an abundance of material for inculcating lessons in morality. But, after all, the very best material is furnished by the everyday happenings and practices of the home, the school, and the environment. The effective lesson in morals is always the one that is assimilated into the life by moral practice. It is much easier to teach children to know the right than it is to teach them to practice the right. It is also much more futile.

Tidiness, obedience, and the conquering of self are lessons that the youngest child can practice. Honesty, justice, courage, and manliness may be made a part of the life in youth. For young manhood and young womanhood, social and religious life are full of ethical practices;

while for adult life remains not only an intelligent and appreciative practice of all of these but also all the practical morality that centers around the family, the occupation, and the state.

Posters and Morals.—Acts of immorality are more often the fruit of subtle suggestion than of open temptation. Hence the war upon suggestive posters continues. Many of these posters are objectionable not simply because of their crudeness from an artistic standpoint but also because they are dangerous in their moral influence. Some are decidedly suggestive and even obscene; some present a direct incentive to crime; while many others are objectionable because of the inaccuracies and willful misrepresentation that they set forth. As their purpose is to attract attention, they are always posted in conspicuous places, in which they dominate the view and detract from its harmony and beauty to the extent to which they are incongruous and conspicuous. Many European cities have regulations which require that posters may be placed only in certain places where they are concentrated and easily guarded from all seriously objectionable features. The difficulty in regard to enforcing laws against immoral posters lies in the fact that it is usually the cases that are just over the border-line of decency that are the most harmful. Hence, concentration and inspection by competent city authorities before they are placed would seem to guarantee the best regulation of their use.

The Comic Newspaper Supplement.—Taste like morals is more subject to frequent suggestion than to violent appeal.

The comic supplement of the daily newspaper is a crude but effective instrument for the widespread vulgarizing of taste. Because of its general entrance to our homes, it is not only vulgarizing in its effects upon the public taste but also a serious menace to individual reverence and obedience to law. It is well that it is now meeting with open and it is to be hoped effective restraint.

The work and influence of an association known as "The League for the Improvement of the Children's Comic Supplement" has already accomplished good results in this respect. The purpose of this league is to improve these supplements so that they may become morally healthful and intellectually helpful. A number of American journals are now endeavoring to supply instructive and amusing pictures for children and, when these are colored, to make them objects of good taste and pleasing appearance.

There is a legitimate demand for humor and amusement. But when these take the form, as they so often do in the daily paper, especially in the Sunday issue, of irreverent and degrading treatment of elders and of constituted authority, and when these are shown up in connection with low talk, bad drawing, and worse coloring, humor is degraded into buffoonery and amusement is apt to make serious inroads upon the æsthetic and moral natures of the readers. Especially do such supplements menace the best interests of the young, whose standards of life are just in the making and very liable to be built upon false foundations, especially if there is an enticing appeal to their fondness for the amusing things of life. (See also the report of the committee on the teaching of morals in the schools, made to the N. E. A. at San Francisco in July, 1911.)

Religion

Religious Instruction in the Public Schools.—Doctor Charles W. Eliot, in an address recently delivered in Boston, indicated some of the possibilities in the way of religious instruction in the public school. His words are peculiarly timely because of the unwarranted impression in some quarters that public school work is lacking in its care of the spiritual nature of the child. This impression has been fostered by those who assume, because in a free state an established form of religion

must not be maintained by its schools and all forms of religious belief must be tolerated, that therefore the spiritual nature of the child is neglected and open to all of the dwarfing and contaminating influences of its environment.

Doctor Eliot's words indicate clearly that this is not the case in any well-regulated public school system. As he is quoted in the September issue of the *American Educational Review*, he maintains: "The religious ideal is the combination of three ideals which are the supreme result of the best human thinking and feeling through all recorded time. These ideals are truth, beauty or loveliness, and goodness. They have been attained through the experience and example of the finest geniuses that have appeared in the long series of human generations, and have been described and recorded in biography, history, and literature. They have been arrived at through meditation and aspiration." To this those of us who believe in the personality and the continuous revelation of the Divine would add, and through *inspiration*. Doctor Eliot believes that if these ideals can be informally imparted in the public schools, there is no need to teach children the meaning of the conceptions of truth, beauty, and goodness as they are held by civilized men and women, nor to endeavor to give them formal religious standards of perfection to which to induce them to aspire. However, "It should be the incessant and primary object of all the free schools which deal with children from about the sixth year to about the eighteenth, to teach them how *truth* is sought for, with what difficulty it is attained, how fruitful is the knowledge of it, and how enjoyable is the possession of it. In everything the child learns, or does or says, the element of truthfulness is to be considered—to get a vision of the way in which new truth is found is much more important for a child than to gain a knowledge of many old truths."

Informal Instruction

He then refers to the ideal of *beauty*, which he says "rejoices, not only in the actual material beauties of the

external world in color, form, texture, and sound, but also in all representations or reproductions of natural beauties in speech, writing, or the arts. Hence the hold of poetry and the fine arts on both the cultivated and the uncultivated. The ideal of every art is perfection in its own kind, and hence the finest spirit in work is that of the artist who loves his work and is always trying to make it perfect."

The third element, *goodness*, is a conception that "has been arrived at by the race, and is arrived at by every child, through observation and experience of tenderness, sympathy, and good will. In the mind of a child it grows gradually under the influence of mother, father, brothers and sisters, and associates." Here again we would like to add and through contact with the Divine within and without the life. "It is developed by tales of human (and Divine) excellence and virtue and by the child's admiration for teachers, discoverers, and heroes. The growth is most rapid during the period of school life, and it should be a principal object of every school to help every day every child to see, admire, and love goodness." Especially are the lessons of coöperation valuable in teaching goodness and as the great hope of industrial and political progress in a republic. These teachings come through the reading, the history, the geography, and the elements of science and art and also through the manners, speech, and spiritual quality of the teachers. "They must reverence truth, beauty, and goodness, and must daily manifest that reverence before their pupils." A generation of children so taught will, in Doctor Eliot's judgment, possess the virtue which makes human lives pure, homes sweet, and families sound, industries and governments possible—and all without the teaching of dogma or creed.

There is one fact in connection with the teaching or non-teaching of religion in our schools which should be kept in mind. And that is, that, although the teaching

of any distinctive religious belief is strictly forbidden by our fundamental laws, the inculcating of irreligion is just as clearly legislated against. The legend upon our coins, all of our State and National proclamations, the employment of chaplains for our legislative halls, in fact all of our institutions and laws recognize the existence of the Divine and the control of an over-ruling Providence. Our capacity for assimilating foreign and heterogeneous peoples, the influence of our free institutions in removing idiosyncrasies and in welding all shades of opinion into homogeneous action, and, above all, the fundamental work of our free-school system which does so much towards instilling heartening encouragement to effort—all rest upon the strong foundation of the support and guidance of the individual by the Supreme Power which has fashioned the course of our Free State. Destroy this individual confidence and support, and the element of unbelief introduced saps the very foundation of our free institutions and introduces a pessimism and censoriousness which is fatal to a truly democratic state. While we may not legislate against the employment or retention of the infidel in our free school system, the united voice of the people may be used effectually to check his pernicious influence or, if necessary, to prevent his employment in positions in which he may be able to sap the foundation of faith in the immature minds of our young people.

Irreligion

THE THREE HUNDREDTH ANNIVERSARY OF THE MODERN BIBLE.—The three hundredth anniversary of the translation of the Bible which is known as the Authorized Version was celebrated on March 26, 1911, throughout the entire Christian world. In England there was a great united demonstration on the part of all the Protestant denominations. One of the important features of this demonstration was a display in the British Museum of its rich collection of Biblical manuscripts and of early editions of the Bible. Among these were copies of Tyndale's New

Testament, which bears the date of 1525 and which was the first step in what afterwards culminated in the English Bible. Other interesting things displayed were copies of the "Wicked Bible," the "Vinegar Bible" and the "Treacle Bible." These received their names through misprints in them—the first because the word "not" was omitted in the Seventh Commandment, the second because "vinegar" was substituted for "vineyard," and the third because "balm in Gilead" was made to read "treacle."

The Authorized Version was the culmination of a number of translations which began as early as the fourteenth century, when Wyclif made the first effort. Then followed Tyndale with his translation of the New Testament; then Coverdale, Rogers, the great Bible of 1539, the Geneva Bible of 1560, the Bishop's Bible of 1568; then the Catholic version made by members of the Seminary of Douai and Rheims, but which is usually called the Douai Version; and then finally came the Authorized Version. This was made by 54 eminent scholars selected by King James in 1604, seven of whom died before the work was completed. In order to do the work more effectually the translators were divided into six groups, two of these groups worked at Westminster, two at Oxford, and two at Cambridge. Each group assumed the work of translating a certain portion of the Old or New Testament. Although they were all scholarly men, the excellence of the work varied somewhat. The original plan had been to submit the work of each group to the other five and to have a final revision by a small committee selected from the whole body. This, however, was not done, and the translation is not always happily rendered in the English version. This makes it advisable for the critical student to go back to the original texts for nice shades of meaning.

While there were several important translations of Holy Writ preceding the Authorized Version, it may truthfully be called the first Bible of the people. The Bible as

we know it contains 66 books written at various times during a period covering nearly 1600 years. The Old Testament books were written in Hebrew, the New Testament in Greek. The writing was originally done either on prepared skins or on papyrus. None of these original writings are now in existence; but before they were lost or destroyed well authenticated copies or translations of them had been made. It is from these Hebrew, Greek, Latin, Syriac, and Anglo-Saxon copies and translations that we derive our modern Bible.

Influence on Literature

At a notable gathering in Carnegie Hall in New York in celebration of the 300th anniversary of the publication of the King James Version of the English Bible, Ambassador Bryce of Great Britain spoke of the general effect that this translation has had upon the English-speaking race. "The great event," he said, "which we are met to commemorate was, like most great things, no sudden achievement of a group of gifted scholars, but the mature fruit of desires and purposes which had long been ripening in the minds of our ancestors. How much of the excellence of our great writers from Milton, Jeremy Taylor and Baxter downward is traceable to their knowledge of the diction of the Bible! We can feel it in four great masters of our tongue who adorned the last generation, to all of whom the Scriptures were familiar from childhood. We recognize it in the speeches of John Bright and Abraham Lincoln, in the sermons and essays of Cardinal Newman, and in the earlier writing of Thomas Carlyle before his style became Germanized. British and American character have been largely formed by this book."

CHAPTER IX

SOCIAL PROBLEMS—CONTINUED

Civil and Political Problems

Austin L. Crothers, the distinguished Governor of the State of Maryland, said some things concerning good citizenship at an important meeting of church-workers in the city of Baltimore some months ago, that should be carefully considered by every voter, parent, and teacher in the land. In view of the fact that all the signs of the times point to a return of power to the people, to a time when it is going to become much easier for the people to express their will and to gain their desire, it is extremely important that the people have the qualities of good citizenship and that they be guided by enlightened and conscientious leaders. And to Governor Crothers' mind the Church should be the place where such leaders are to be found.

That this might be true he urged upon all churchmen three things: "First, do not let yourselves be mere critics. We need the critical element in political life, just as we need diagnosis in disease; but if you are sick, you do not stop at the diagnosis; you want a physician who will discover and apply the remedy. I have sometimes feared that in public affairs the 'good people' are satisfied simply to criticise. You haven't a right to do that unless you are willing to jump in and work. Second, you need patience. Things are not reformed in a moment. We must keep everlastingly at it to get things done. And along with this persistence must come a willingness to make the best of what is accomplished. Take what you can get, and be patient until you can get

Three Important Things

more. Don't have such fine theories that you refuse to take anything because you can't get everything. Third, remember that the State means you. We hear lots of people say that it is a pity the churches don't do so and so, meaning that the ministers don't do it, and forgetting that they are just as much church members as the ministers, and have just as great responsibility. In the same way we hear that the city or the State ought to do this and that, and they forget that both are made up of individuals, and that the State will only do the right when individuals begin to do the right. Thousands of men are earnest champions of a protective tariff, with an exception in their own favor when they return from a trip abroad. Thousands clamor for the enforcement of every law except the one that touches their own case. Thousands are sincere anti-grafters unless there is some little favor they want themselves. We need a patriotism that is unselfish. We need individual righteousness before we can have State righteousness. The State will do its duty only when you and I, as individuals, begin to do ours."

Government by Commission.—Now that "government by commission" is attracting so much attention, an article in *Everybody's Magazine* for October, which explains what is meant by it and why there is a demand for it, should be of interest. William Daly, Jr., the writer of the article, says "the commission plan is an attempt to make the *theory* of representative government a *fact*. It aims to give the people what they want when they want it." Although there are naturally many variations in the details of the commission plan, Mr. Daly calls attention to the fact that its essential features are very simple. "Commission government," he says, "has two objects: administrative responsibility and popular control." The first is obtained by the election by the voters of a municipality of five or seven commissioners, one of whom serves as chairman although he may be called mayor. The commissioners are elected not by wards but at large,

so that ward lines become useless as a means of political control. No party designations are allowed on the ballot, and any one can be nominated for commissioner who obtains the signatures of a certain number of voters. To fix responsibility, the work of the city is divided among the commissioners, who make all appointments and who are collectively responsible for the work done by each in his department. This practically welds the commissioners into a cabinet, which must hold frequent meetings for the adoption of general policies and harmonious practices. It also compels them to employ expert and experienced assistants in their respective departments to take charge of all detailed work. The centralizing and harmonizing of the municipal forces both foster responsibility and build up efficiency in effort and expenditure. "We have found that a division of authority among mayor, council, and alderman is merely a device for evading responsibility."

The second object of the commission plan, popular control, is obtained through the initiative, referendum, and recall. Whenever fifteen or twenty per cent. of the voters feel that a certain ordinance should be passed, they may present their petition to the commissioners; these must then either pass the ordinance or submit it to the vote of the whole city. That's the *initiative.* Whenever the commissioners pass an ordinance (except one that concerns public health or safety), it must not go into operation until after a certain period of time. If, during that period, fifteen or twenty per cent. of the voters protest, the commissioners must either rescind the ordinance or submit it to the vote of the whole city. That's the *referendum.* If fifteen or twenty per cent. of the voters feel that a commissioner is incompetent or dishonest, they may ask that the whole city vote for his removal. A special election is called just as if his office were vacant, and unless he receives the highest number of votes, he is automatically removed. That's the *recall.*"

Initiative, Referendum, Recall

Although the idea of governing a city by means of a small board of commissioners originated in Galveston, only as far back as 1903, already over 180 incorporated municipalities in the United States have adopted it. In 1907, a more democratic and representative form of the commission plan was put into operation in Des Moines, Iowa. This "Des Moines Plan" has served as the model for most of the cities that have adopted such a scheme of municipal control.

Points of Weakness

That government by commission will not solve all of the difficulties nor avert all of the menaces inherent in the management of large aggregations of people, has already become evident. It is so difficult to arouse a sufficient interest in all important questions as to get a vote on them which really represents the will of a majority of the people. It is often easy to stir up public sentiment against an official who is conscientiously performing an unpopular duty. Popularity is also often mistaken for efficiency. But that all such plans represent a strong tendency toward a revival of a spirit of true democracy as well as a determination to have both efficiency and honesty in all representative service, cannot be questioned. The management of all the affairs of a city by a few men, has already had a strong influence toward cutting down the number of members in boards of school control, even in cities where the commission plan has not been adopted. Small school boards that legislate and adopt general policies but which entrust all details of management to experts, upon whom they call for a general accounting of work accomplished as well as for suggestions for general improvement and expert advice, are apt to secure the most effective service in the administration of the people's schools. And this is true for reasons similar to the ones that are increasing the demand for government by commission.

PART VI

CHAPTER X

FOREIGN EDUCATIONAL INTERESTS

AUSTRALIA

Up to the year 1905, the teachers in New South Wales commenced their teaching careers between the ages of 14 and 16, when they were known as "pupil-teachers." They were held responsible for the teaching of a certain number of children, receiving in return a small salary and their own instruction from the principal of the school where they taught. A limited number of these pupil-teachers were admitted after about 4 years of teaching to training colleges from which they could graduate as "assistants," and later on become master or mistress of a school. But most of them were placed instead in charge of small country schools or made "assistants" in other schools. Efforts are now being made, however, to do away with pupil-teachers and to insist that the training for teaching shall be given antecedent to employment.

"Pupil-Teachers"

The New Capital

The federation known as the Commonwealth of Australia was proclaimed at Sydney on January 1, 1901, when the present constitution was adopted by New South Wales, Victoria, Queensland, South Australia, West Australia, and the Island of Tasmania—the states composing the federation. At that time it was agreed that the central government should be located at Melbourne until a new

capital city should be chosen. It was provided that the new capital "must be in New South Wales, not less than 100 miles from the city of Sydney;" and later on the Australian Parliament decided that it should be located in the district of Yass-Canberra, that the federal reservation should contain not less than 900 square miles, and that it should have access to the sea. On the first day of January, 1911, the parliament issued an approval of the Yass-Canberra site, and passed on the same day an appropriation for the erection of suitable government buildings.

CHINA

The statement is made that China has made greater progress during the last ten years than in the preceding ten centuries. And the danger now is not that the popular leaders shall be too conservative but that they may become too radical and act over-hastily in matters that need careful consideration.

In an article in the *Review of Reviews* for February, 1911, Clarence Poe speaks of the New China, which he says is wide awake and now at work. There is an old Chinese proverb that "When China wakes up she will move like an avalanche." And there is much occurring in China to-day to justify the saying. When the Provincial Assemblies were organized in the fall of 1909, the people got a taste of power as they began to confer together. But their hopes were not realized, and it was freely predicted that the National Assembly which convened the following October would prove a mere echo of the royal wishes. And yet one of the first acts of this Assembly was to demand "that the Grand Council, or imperial cabinet, be summoned before it to explain an alleged breach of the rights of Provincial Assemblies;" and before it adjourned it unanimously petitioned the Throne to hasten the fulfillment of the Imperial Decree of 1908, which promised a parliament and a constitution within nine years. So widespread is this demand that

it is now probable that the full parliament and possibly even a republic may be well established long before that time. (China became a republic February 13, 1912.)

And "It also seems safe to prophesy that the powers of the parliament will be wisely used." For "In local affairs the Chinese practically established the rule of the people centuries before any European nation adopted the idea." Although nominally the local magistrates have had almost arbitrary power, in reality the elders of the village have had practical control. For whenever they have met and decided upon a course the magistrate has not dared to pursue a contrary policy. In this way through centuries of practice in local self-government the people have been well prepared for national self-government.

But probably the most surprising thing in China's awakening is the changed attitude in regard to the use of opium that is sweeping the country. It was but a few years ago that the statement was confidently made, "If 300 years of contact with the Chinese has taught one lesson more thoroughly than another, it is that no legislation, no measures of repression, however severe, can turn the Chinaman from opium smoking and gambling." And yet so rapid has been the breaking away from the use of opium that English officials are embarrassed by the heavy deficits threatened to their Indian revenues derived from this source. "Moreover, when the Edict of 1906 came out declaring a ten years' war against opium, all well-informed people regarded it as a joke. Many of the officials entrusted with the duty of enforcing the edict also thought it would prove a farce." But when official after official was displaced for his neglect and men by the hundreds made public bonfires of their opium-smoking outfits, it became evident that the crusade was an earnest one and that it would more likely be carried out effectually in five or six years, especially if England is willing to give the Empire the right to prohibit the impor-

Opium

tation of opium. This opium crusade marks one of the greatest moral achievements of modern times. "It is," as Mr. Frederick Ward declares, "the miracle of the Middle Kingdom and a lesson for the world." We shall probably get a better understanding of what it means if we consider the words of a high Chinese official: "Let America try to stop drinking among 100,000,000 people, and she will then understand China's stupendous achievement in stopping opium-smoking among four times that number."

One of China's greatest problems is the education of her people. Unfortunately, until recently education has been regarded as the privilege of only the gifted few and not as the need and right of all. But this idea is changing, as is well illustrated in one of the provinces where a few years ago there was an attendance of only 8,000 in the government schools, where now there are upwards of 250,000 pupils in attendance, with almost as many teachers as formerly there were pupils. But the change in educational ideals is of even more importance than this phenomenal growth in numbers. The Imperial Edict of 1905 swept away the exclusively classical and literary system, "made sacred though it was by the traditions of unnumbered centuries." The old education taught nothing of science nor of the higher mathematics. It paid no attention whatever to history and geography outside of that of the Empire itself. "Its main object was to enable the scholar to write a learned essay or a faultless poem, its main use to enable him by these means to get office." To this end brothers and sisters, as well as parents, would sacrifice their own pleasure and with a devotion beautiful to see would find inspiration for their own harder labors in the thought of the bright future awaiting the scholar of the family. For education, the school, and the teacher have always been held in the highest esteem in China.

Change in Educational Ideals

But the Chinese work under a serious disadvantage in

their language. It has no alphabet, and but comparatively few characters from which words of the language can readily be constructed. Instead it has a separate and arbitrary character for each word in the language. "This means an absolute waste of at least five years in the pupil's school life, except in so far as memorizing the characters counts as memory-training, and five years make up the bulk of the average student's school days in any country. If it were not for this handicap and the difficulty of finding teachers enough for present needs, it would be impossible to set limits to the educational advance of the next twenty years. For China is in earnest in this matter of the 'new education.' "

Mr. Poe then refers to China's efforts to develop an efficient army. This is in sharp contrast to her old contempt for the soldier. In fact, so general has the military spirit become that one of the leading journals has entered this protest: "Scarce a school of any pretensions but has its military drill, extending in some instances as far as equipment with modern rifles and regular range practice, and we regret to notice that some of the mission schools have so far forgotten themselves as to pander to this militarist spirit." No doubt the annexation of Korea by Japan with her ever-tightening grip on Manchuria has aroused China to the need of being able to defend herself. Moreover, she wishes to become strong enough not to be dominated by other nations in such matters as the opium traffic and foreign duties.

The Newer Ideals

The Chinese Imperial Government had planned to provide an elementary school for every four hundred families within the next four years. Colleges have already been established in most of the provinces of China. The spirit of the newer educational ideals is laying strong hold of the Chinese mind and is rapidly supplanting the traditional ideas of the wise man whose thoughts for many

centuries have controlled the life of the students and fashioned their ideals.

What Count Okuma recently said concerning Japanese students is just as true of the Chinese students: "The fatal defect in the teaching of the great sages of Japan and China is that, while they deal with virtue and morals, they do not sufficiently dwell on the spiritual nature of man, and any nation that neglects the spiritual, though it may flourish for a time, must eventually decay." To this is added the forcible statement: "The origin of modern civilization is to be found in the teachings of the Sage of Judea, by whom alone the necessary moral dynamic is supplied." Many will be startled at such a statement, coming as it does from a Japanese ruler, but it merely confirms two things that have been so faithfully preached and maintained by Christians: first, that a Divine personality is essential for vital religious belief; and, second, that there is little force and virtue in a morality which is not founded upon such religious belief.

Defect in Moral Teaching

Famine

China has been passing through a famine period, with a devastating plague following in its wake, that should arouse badly needed sympathy and help from the entire outside world. Famine has been sweeping off thousands in the east central provinces, and the plague, which seems to have originated in Manchuria, has been extending its ravages almost to the doors of Peking. Little relief from these distressing conditions occurred before the middle of April, and even since then thousands have been living next door to starvation and deadly disease.

The people have left their homes in great caravans and "Of all of the distressing sights," writes a contributor to *The Christian Herald*, "of this poverty-stricken land none is so distressing as that of these little family caravans so characteristic of famine years. The father pushes a

barrow on which are an iron pot, a small bag of wheat or rice, a rice bowl or two, one or two extra garments, and one or two of the younger children. The mother walks in front helping to pull the barrow by a rope and also carrying the youngest baby, only a few months old. Older children walk alongside. As they go they gather up stray hay and grass to cook the next meal. At noon they stop and dig a hole in the ground, over which they set the pot and cook a meal of gruel. At night they sleep in a temple or in some door-way, without much if any bedding. They may be able to find some place where there is a little more to be had by begging or public alms, and then they set up a pair of straw mats into a hut, shaped like the top of an old prairie schooner, joining a settlement of such refugees beside the city wall, and there they spend the winter. They are ragged and squalid beyond description." (See also "China" in the 1910 "Annals of Educational Progress.")

EGYPT

Jewish colonization in Egypt has been going on at an unusual rate within recent years. The colonists are mainly Russian Jews. Many of them are good farmers and all are proving themselves desirable colonists. It seems like an odd turn of the wheel of time that brings back the Hebrew to the race's ancient "land of bondage." The eagerness of these people to embrace every opportunity for the education of their children is one of the most promising features of this influx of Hebrews into Egypt. A better government and an increased prosperity have been brought into the land by the English, and they may find in their efforts to reinvigorate this ancient but effete civilization a strong ally in these Jewish immigrants. Like their famous ancestor of old, who brought prosperity and higher political and moral ideals into the land of his bondage, the coming of these Jews may in the end mean much for the welfare of Egypt.

ENGLAND

British Politics

Early in 1911, the British House of Commons took up the question of restricting the power of the House of Lords and passed a Veto Bill through its first reading, notwithstanding the strong efforts of the "Opposition." The bill has three provisions: (1) The House of Lords is deprived of its control over money bills, the Speaker of the House of Commons being authorized to determine whether or not a bill is a money bill; (2) Any bill which the House of Commons passes at three different sessions, with a period of not less than two years intervening between its introduction and its final passage, shall become a law without the consent of the House of Lords; (3) The duration of Parliament is reduced from seven to five years.

In connection with taking away from the House of Lords the power to veto legislation, the Government has affirmed its intention to substitute for it as it now exists "a second chamber constituted on a popular instead of a hereditary basis." Ever since the issue between the House of Commons, which is the elected body, and the House of Lords, which is the hereditary body, has been raised, it has been evident that the people of England are determined that their own duly constituted representatives shall have their will in all legislation. If the bill passes as it now stands, in the future any legislation on any subject that has been three times passed by the Commons will become a law two years from the date of its second reading, without the consent of the Lords and even though they have three times rejected it. And the Lords would then have no power beyond that of proposing amendments and of causing some delay in the passing of bills which they regard as undesirable. Over financial measures they would have no power whatever either of

amendment or delay. Commenting upon this the editor of *The World's Work*, October, 1911, says: "The far-reaching character of the revolution which we have witnessed cannot be appreciated unless one remembers that Great Britain possesses nothing corresponding to our Constitution and Supreme Court. It has now practically abolished its second chamber, committing its destinies to the will of a single House, elected directly by the people and authorized to enact laws which nobody can impugn as unconstitutional. Democracy has never gone so far in any other great nation."

An English Parliamentary Election

At present there are three prominent political parties in England. These are the Conservatives or Unionists, the Liberals, and the Labor party. In addition to these is the small body composed of members of all parties who are working for home rule for Ireland and who are known as Irish Nationalists. Parliamentary elections differ from the American election of Congressmen in several important respects.

(1) The general election extends over a period of several weeks instead of being held everywhere upon the same day. This is done to give persons who own property an opportunity for plural voting, by which is meant an opportunity to vote in the various places where they own property—the ownership or occupation of property being in England one of the prerequisites to the right of suffrage.

(2) The general elections are not fixed affairs, but occur only as the necessity arises through the dissolution of Parliament. This is done by the King at the recommendation of the Ministry when it can no longer command a working majority in the House of Commons and yet is unwilling to turn the reins of government over to its opponents. When such an emergency arises, the Premier recommends an election to secure a verdict of the people as to whether they desire a change in the policy of the

House of Commons, which, with the Premier as the leader of its majorities, is the real ruling body in England.

(3) When a new Parliament is to be formed the Crown Office issues writs for an election; these writs are forwarded to an election officer or, as he is called in England, a "returning officer" in each election division. Upon receiving these writs the returning officer fixes a day for nomination and a day for polling. On the nomination day the names of candidates are publicly received in the form of petitions, which must be signed by the proposer of the name, a seconder, and eight other electors. The person nominated need not reside within the election division, nor for that matter be a resident of England. If the person nominated has no opponents, his election is said not to be "contested" and no further election is required. This is not an infrequent occurrence, owing to the fact that a member of Parliament has comparatively no patronage to distribute; that under the English system one political position is practically never a stepping-stone to a higher position; that the national Treasury spends with few exceptions no money on local improvements; and that the expense of securing and maintaining a seat in Parliament is rarely less than several thousand pounds per year.

(4) The fourth and probably greatest difference lies in the fact that the voters are more interested in sending to Parliament men who will carry out their policies than they are in parties as such. What they strive for is to place power in the hands of a Ministry that professes the principles they believe. The person or party helping to maintain a working majority for this Ministry, while of importance, is only secondary in the voters' estimation.

(5) The amount and objects for which money may be spent in a campaign are also very definitely fixed by law. Violation of this law carries with it severe political disfranchisement and serious loss to the cause represented by the constituency involved.

"Tutorial Classes"

England has been trying an experiment in continuation work that promises well. A number of universities have during the past two or three years provided courses for extra-mural students—students unable to matriculate for the regular, resident university work. The courses cover a period of three years and the subjects studied are such as will prepare for a fuller intellectual life. There is no thought at present of making them bear upon the ability to earn a livelihood or upon general vocational efficiency. A recent report to the British Board of Education indicates that these "tutorial classes" are meeting a real need, and it pays a tribute to the great natural ability and genuine intellectual hunger of some of these non-resident students.

Industrial Training

Important provision was recently made by the London County Council for a system of "trade scholarships," whereby girls may receive free training for such skilled trades as dressmaking, millinery, corset-making, designing and upholstering, and photography. Candidates must be between 14 and 16 years of age and must receive the endorsement of their teachers "in respect of intelligence, conduct, and dexterity in handicraft."

This is a step in the direction of the free education which is so abundantly supplied in America that we are apt to be unappreciative until an occurrence like the above calls attention to our exceptional privileges.

The Universities

It will probably be a matter of surprise to some to learn that within the least 10 years no less than 6 new universities have been founded in England. We are apt to regard these older countries as so fixed in their institutions that matters of growth and development cannot materially affect them. As a matter of fact, however,

few countries are responding more spontaneously to the call of new social and industrial conditions than Great Britain. And this is almost as true of its colonies and dependencies as it is of the mother country.

It is only natural to expect that these universities, which are located in such places as Liverpool, Manchester, Sheffield, etc., should breathe the spirit of the changed conditions that have to be met in the work of the higher institutions of learning. In accordance with these new demands, these universities have provided for technical training, for the admission on equal terms of women, for various efforts to unify their work with that of the various agencies of national education, and to meet in general the conditions that will enable them to participate in Parliamentary appropriations—a large step toward placing them under the control of the people. An important provision in all of them is that of maintaining departments or courses for the instruction of teachers.

General Conferences

It must not be thought, however, that the older universities of England are ignoring the changing conditions and demands of the times. This is shown by such movements on their part as the invitation of the universities of Oxford, Cambridge, and London to the higher institutions in the different parts of the Empire to take part in a general conference to be held in London this year, to discuss problems connected with changing social needs. Such a conference should not only help the universities represented in the conference, but should also serve to strengthen the bond of sympathy existing between the mother country and its many colonies and dependencies.

Greek as a Compulsory Study

The movement away from exclusive dependence upon the liberal arts in college courses, which has become so general in America as to alarm educators who hold to the

supreme value of the humanities, has taken deep root in England also. At a recent conference of the head-masters of such preparatory schools as Harrow, Rugby, Charterhouse, Marlborough, and Westminster, a resolution was adopted in favor of the universities abolishing Greek as a compulsory study. The resolution clearly indicated that in the judgment of these head-masters the universities should differentiate between the boys who are literary and those who find many literary studies as now pursued uncongenial. What the universities with their strong bias for a broad liberal culture will do remains to be seen, although the heads of the preparatory schools were unanimous in their sentiment in the matter.

Senior Scholarships in London

The Council of the city of London has for some years been providing practically free higher education for a number of young men selected by them for that privilege. A recent investigation as to the benefits of these "senior" scholarships reveals some disappointment to the Education Committee of the Council, who through a sub-committee made the investigation. In their report, as quoted by the *London Morning Post*, they indicate that they are disappointed that, in the greatest commercial city in the world, so few of these men to whom they are furnishing a generous system of education enter upon the commercial pursuits which are furnishing most of the means for the scholarships. Many of the men continue to follow cultural pursuits, while a large percentage enter upon unremunerative teaching. The words of the report are significant of a changing sentiment in England. For example: "The greatest defect in London education at the present moment is probably the absence of a college of commerce, where the training should be of a university character. Such a college should be organized without further delay; it should be a school of the university; our commercial magnates should take part in the management of it, and in

future a number of the one hundred scholarships should be tenable at it. In this college the training should be open to women, for whom, at present, the outlook at the termination of their scholarship career is anything but satisfactory; practically all resort to teaching. The great defect in the present system of scholarships is, undoubtedly, the lack of definiteness. The training leads nowhere in particular, and the period at the end is one of disappointment and disillusion. This lack of definite aim would disappear to some extent if more of the holders were diverted to technical and commercial pursuits."

On this point of following industrial and business pursuits, the report recites that the students complain that they find difficulty in securing employment excepting upon a probationary period during which they are offered practically no salary. This is due "to the disinclination of employers to take a university man into their employ except on payment of a premium or by passing through a probationary period during which practically no salary is paid. This attitude of the employer is largely the result of the impractical nature of the training received under the present system. The employer fights shy of a man trained in a university, asserting that his training unfits him for industrial conditions and methods." According to the report, this same feeling prevails among engineers in England. "Engineers for the most part regard a university degree in their work as of very little value, and the same is true of other industries. This is largely due to the fact that the training received by a technical student in a university is too often divorced from the practice actually obtaining in the industry."

University Training and Business

An investigation conducted by Frederick P. Keppel, dean of Columbia, indicates a somewhat different condition in the United States; for here Mr. Keppel found that business attracts more of the graduates than any

other occupation. However, his investigation confirmed the idea implied in the report of the London Committee—that is, that colleges have little influence over their students in the matter of choosing vocations. The reasons for this advanced by Dean Keppel are that "a very large proportion of boys before entering college have decided on a very definite scheme of life from which they are not likely to change. The question arises, therefore, whether the colleges are using intelligently the lever which this places in their hands. A competent instructor or dean, having ascertained the boy's ambition, ought to be able to focus his interests, according to the type of boy with whom he is dealing, either in the subjects which form a broad foundation for his work or in those which lead directly toward it."

Improper Literature

A number of prominent British peers, prelates, and schoolmasters have addressed a circular letter to the London press protesting against the publishing of improper literature. In the letter they refer to "certain novels, issued by publishers of repute, which are not only unfit for perusal by a modest girl or a right-minded lad, but are likely to do harm to the moral character of all readers."

They state further that "Many of these works of fiction are not indecent in the ordinary sense of the word, but their whole tone and tendency is debasing and demoralizing. In them open vice and licentiousness are palliated and even justified. To appeal to the authors and publishers of these books seems of little use, and the law requires strengthening before their circulation can be stopped." The circular also makes a strong appeal to parents and schoolmasters, as well as to all others who are interested in the training of boys and girls, to set their faces against the circulation of such novels. Also that they shall expose the character of these books when "it cannot be detected by titles, which often are absolutely

colorless and misleading." The hope is also expressed that an association will be formed in England for the purpose of bringing wholesome pressure in the matter to bear on publishers, circulating libraries, and bookstalls.

FRANCE

The Educational System of France

To the person who is interested in education from the standpoint of scientific management alone, probably no other schools would present quite as strong an appeal as the school system of France. For there everything is systematized, from the infant classes to the great schools of law and medicine at Paris. Henry A. Perkins, of Trinity College, Hartford, Conn., has indicated this so clearly in an article in the *Educational Review* for March, that the following facts are quoted freely from his words:

"The studies pursued are carefully systematized to meet a perfectly definite requirement—to attain most efficiently a given end. The school government is systematized to carry out most effectually this curriculum. The relations between the different grades of schools, colleges, lycées, and the universities are again systemized with equal care, and the career of each individual of the many thousands engaged in teaching throughout France is directed by a centralized power, in a way that is astonishing to one accustomed to our far more individualistic methods." The central power is the Minister of Public Instruction working with the committee on education of the Chamber of Deputies. These delegate certain things to such lower officials as travelling inspectors, rectors of universities, etc.

"The real bulwark of French education is the lycée." This takes pupils from the age of 6 and is fitted to carry them through to what is about equal to the junior year of a good American college by the time they are 18. The full lycée course is divided into 12 classes grouped as follows:

The Lycée

	Years
Infant class	1
Preparatory course	2
Elementary course	2
First cycle	4
Second cycle	3

At the end of the elementary course, when the pupil is 11, compulsory education ceases. By the time he has completed the first cycle, he is 15 and will have so well finished a rounded group of studies that he can logically leave the school. The Minister of Public Instruction is quoted as urging that some leave at this time, because, he says, "It is a well defined end for those who have no taste for study, who pursue the classes with poor grace, and who compose in them a dead weight that hampers their progress." With the second cycle the French limit of general culture studies is reached, and study beyond that means specialization in the universities or in a technical or professional school.

Before entering upon the first cycle, or the beginning of the secondary course of his work—at the age of 11—the pupil may choose either the "classic" or the "modern" course, according to whether he intends to enter a learned profession or to follow a business or a technical calling. If he is destined for a profession he chooses the "classic" course, which the minister of education thinks has done so much for France, having "given to the French genius an incomparable lucidity, scope, and elegance. . . . The classic spirit is not, as some affirm, incompatible with the spirit of the times. It belongs to all time, because it is the culture of pure and liberal reason, the search for simplicity, harmony, and beauty in all the expressions of thought." Not that he does not recognize the need of strongly equipping the great army of work, but "the real social value of instruction lies less in programs and methods than in education considered broadly as the development of those intellectual and moral qualities which make for justice and liberty of mind; for an upright conscience and

a strong will; and that it is only thus that it will properly fulfill its purpose in producing the man and the citizen." And his utterances are quoted because Professor Perkins thinks he voices and reflects the spirit and ideals for which France has stood for so many hundreds of years.

At the end of the second year of the first cycle, those who have chosen the classical course may take up Greek. At the beginning of the second cycle, those who have not elected Greek but wish to continue with Latin and philosophy may take either a Latin-modern-language group or a Latin-science group of studies. The same degree is conferred on all, although it is understood that no such higher degrees as *Doctor of Letters* can be conferred on a man who has not studied the classics, and a partly classical course is a prerequisite to both law and medicine. As the examinations for the whole secondary course are all passed at once and are both oral and written, they form quite an ordeal.

Curriculum of the Lycée

"The curriculum of the lycée is a remarkably well considered grouping and progressive development of subjects, but such a wide scope of general culture as is demanded by French tradition results in a decidedly overcrowded day for the growing boy. At first it is not so bad; pupils under 12 are not allowed to work over 7 hours a day, including study. Between the ages of 12 and 16, 9 hours is the total permitted, but between 16 and 18 years the curriculum calls for from 24 to 28 hours of classes a week (exclusive of study), according to the group elected, and there is often added an optional course, such as drawing. This means that there can be extremely little free time during the waking hours." And thus there can be little time for sports and physical development.

The course in the lycée lays a great deal of stress on the teaching of the mother tongue, and upon what is regarded by the Frenchman as perhaps the most important branch of all, the teaching of morals—both individual and civic. In the last year of compulsory

attendance—the end of the primary section—when the pupil is 11, he is studying:

Reading: Elementary grammar and analysis of sentences, declamation, spelling, composition, and writing.
Morals: Personal and civic (lectures).
History: of France (general outlines of world's history having been given earlier).
Geography: Especially devoted to France, but outlines of geography of world.
Mathematics: Through fractions, simple interest, and mensuration.
Nature Study: Outlining most of the sciences in an easy and attractive way.
Drawing and Singing.

The last year of the lycée course gives a good idea of the strenuous work demanded of the pupil who would stand well in his studies:

Philosophy: 8½ hours a week and covering psychology, logic, ethics, metaphysics and philosophy of Plato, Spinoza, Leibnitz, Locke, Kant's Prolegomenon, etc.
Latin and Greek: 4 hours—(optional) Cicero's Rhetoric, extracts from Lucian, Thucydides, Aristotle, Theocritus.
Modern Languages: 2 hours (optional). If English, study Ruskin, Carlyle, Keats, Byron, Kipling, etc.
History and Geography: 3½ hours—advanced contemporary history of Europe, Asia, and America.
Mathematics: 2 hours—quadratic equations, graphic algebra, elementary analytic geometry.
Physics and Chemistry: 3 hours—about the equivalent of our best high-school courses.
Natural History: 2 hours—elementary physiology, elementary paleontology, elementary vegetable physiology.
Drawing: 2 hours (optional).
Hygiene: 12 lectures of 1 hour each.

Thoroughly equipped teachers are necessary to carry out such a curriculum. It is now necessary for the lycée professor to be a trained specialist in his department, to have both his degrees—for knowledge and for professional training, and also the Agrégé, which means the equivalent for a doctor's degree but without the doctorate dissertation. The salary is from 3200 to 8000 francs a year according to the age and success of the teacher. In addition to the regular professors there are also the "répétiteurs" or tutors, who superintend the study, do some quizzing, and supply the professors' places when they are ill or away.

In addition to the lycée, there are also the communal

schools located in every town. These teach the elementary branches up to the eleventh year and then give an additional 3 years for those who wish to learn a trade or to carry their schooling a little higher than the primary work. Then there are colleges, which are really lycées supported by the town, although under the direction of the state. They are not on as high a level as the regular lycées, with which there is a tendency for them to merge. There are also the church schools, which, although they have played a most important rôle in the past, are now of less importance on account of the growing anti-clerical spirit. There are still, however, several large schools of this type, patronized by those who fear to expose their sons to the somewhat free-thinking atmosphere of the government schools. Lastly, there are the industrial schools similar to the Realschulen of Germany. They take pupils at about 15, when they have completed the First cycle, and give them a 3 years' course which is distinctly more commercial and practical than the Second cycle would offer them.

This brings us to the universities, where again is to be observed the same "system" that characterizes the lower schools. The universities of France all look to Paris for direction and funds, and they are no more at liberty to compete with each other for pupils, or in the securing of the ablest instructors, than would be the different stations on a railroad line in securing local managers or dispatching agents; it all rests with the central authority. This all tends very naturally to make the University of Paris the prototype of the other universities and to make it the popular school to attend. As a result it has 15,000 or more students. Its two central departments, the School of Letters and the School of Science, together constitute the Sorbonne. Connected with it are the world-famous laboratories in charge of such eminent persons as Mme. Curie, co-discoverer with

Universities

her husband of radium, Professor Lippman, the discoverer of color-photography, and many others.

The lectures in the Sorbonne are in the main free; but one has to matriculate to attend certain smaller classes and a fee is charged for work in the laboratories. "The professor is a great man at the Sorbonne, and it is most impressive to see one of the really important ones, an Academician for instance, enter his classroom, preceded by an usher wearing a silver chain of office, and his assistants (if it is an experimental lecture), amid the enthusiastic applause of his hearers. Learning ranks very high in Paris, and the respectful, almost strained attention of the students in the classroom shows how serious a matter it is to them; one realizes how much a man's whole fate depends on his success as a student in a country where scholarship is so much admired." However, these great men never teach, although they may direct a research laboratory. They seldom lecture more than twice a week, and that in many cases for but half the year, but when they do it is almost wholly on their own original contributions to science or letters. "What little teaching is done at the Sorbonne is in the hands of assistant professors.—The student at the Sorbonne attends lectures, works in the laboratory, or reads in the library, and, after 3 years of this work, comes up for his license." This license admits the holder to many privileges, government positions and other callings, but for a lycée professor the candidate must also study pedagogy and pass a severe examination for his Agrégé.

The doctor's degree is necessary for those who aspire to a university professorship. For this the candidate must pass another examination and must write a major and a minor thesis which he must defend before a jury of 4 professors. The public is invited to attend this ceremonial, "which is faintly suggestive of a sort of intellectual bear-baiting." The great professional schools are grouped

around the Sorbonne. The Ecole Normale for the training of teachers is now a part of the Sorbonne. "Some of the most illustrious names of French history are on its rolls, and the comparatively small number of men graduated each year are equipped more perfectly for their particular calling (teaching) than the graduates of any other institution in France." And this is as it should be.

Professor Perkins describes several other important French institutions of learning and, altogether, presents one of the best brief accounts of the French system of Education that has been written.

Pupil-Visits to Foreign Countries

In July, 40 pupils of the secondary schools of France who had distinguished themselves in their work during the year, were sent, at the expense of the Government, to London to spend four weeks in studying the English language and in systematic sightseeing. The visitors were under the leadership of two teachers and were separated into two parties, one of boys and the other of girls. Particular attention was paid during the visit to things connected with Anglo-French commercial relations.

These visits form a new departure in the system of rewards and punishments in which the French educators still believe and which they, it must be confessed, manage to administer in the spirit of fitting the effect to the deed. To do this more effectually the form of the prize, as well as of the punishment, is left to the discretion of the head master. And the fact that prizes for good scholarship have of late been taking the form of free foreign travel should accomplish a great deal in the way of brightening the lives of pupils, of enlarging their mental horizon, and of stimulating them to a desire for a broader and deeper knowledge of the world in which they live. To give definiteness and the proper permanency to the results of the visit, each pupil was required to write a report of the impressions received from the observation of life in London.

GERMANY

According to the report of the United States Commissioner of Education, there has been an increase in the number of students attending the 183 normal schools in the Kingdom of Prussia. "This increase is owing to the opening of new normal and preparatory schools and the passage of the new salary law, which opens to teachers a better prospect for an adequate income than formerly." The Government is making efforts to supply the demand for teachers by arranging special normal classes for students of public and private secondary schools aside from the regular 3 and 6 year normal school courses. The meaning of the "regular 3 and 6 year normal school courses" is made clear by the practice in such states as Bavaria. There the candidates for the normal school course must be at least 16 years of age and receive a two years' education in the normal school. Following this is required a practice year, without salary. Those who get through this practice or probationary year successfully, are appointed as assistant teachers for a period of three years; after which the final examination, which lasts three days, and is partly written and partly oral, is given. After passing the final examination, candidates must teach from 2 to 4 years in subordinate positions before they may receive a full appointment as teacher. But, after this, teaching is a life career, with honor, a fair salary, and a pension upon retirement.

The following passage is significant because of its bearing upon the question of whether the teacher of vocational work should be a pedagogically trained person. "The curriculum of state normal schools is so arranged as to prepare the students for the demands of industrial life, in order that the graduates of normal schools can act as teachers of continuation schools, general or vocational, as they may be. The prevalent custom is not to employ, if it can possibly be avoided, skilled artisans for vocational

work in continuation schools, since it is deemed best to place the further education of youth in the hands of pedagogically prepared teachers. Artisans are apt to give too much attention to mere manual skill and tool work, and to neglect general or cultural studies." (See also an account of Dr. Kerschensteiner's lectures concerning his work in Munich, in Part II of this volume.)

ITALY

INTELLECTUAL VIGOR.—In the February issue of *Education* attention is called to the fact that we are apt, in this country, to undervalue the educational spirit and vigor of the nations of Southern Europe. In the Foreign Notes it is stated: "The Mediterranean basin promises soon to become the scene of important movements in education. The nations on either shore are gradually developing systems of popular education, while at the same time they are recognizing or expanding their higher institutions. We are too prone in this country to misprize the intellectual vigor of these nations in which the education of the common people has been more or less neglected.

"Italy and Spain can boast of universities which have added to their ancient 'faculties' important equipment for technical instruction. The University of Bologna, which has rounded out more than eight full centuries, has a school of agriculture and a school of engineering. The University of Genoa, which is nearing the seventh century of its history, has recently added a school of engineering. The University of Rome, which dates from 1303, comprises, besides the four faculties, a school of pharmacy, a school of engineering, an institute of commerce, and a higher institute for women, the latter dating from 1882."

The excellent work instituted by Maria Montessori for little children in the City of Rome points clearly to the fact that Italy has educational possibilities that are apt to be of great interest to the rest of the world. (See the account of her work in Part II of this volume.)

Dearth of Teachers

Italy is experiencing the dearth of well-trained teachers for its schools that has become so general everywhere since the world of industry and commerce have begun to offer so many superior financial inducements. The Minister of Public Instruction, in presenting his budget for the current school year, earnestly urged upon the Chamber of Deputies the pressing educational needs of the kingdom. Among other things he reported over 800 schools that cannot be kept open for the want of teachers. And he fears that, unless prompt means are adopted, this condition will grow worse, because the normal schools are steadily losing pupils, the registration having declined 40 per cent. within the last four years. In referring to these things he especially emphasized the superior claims of primary (elementary) education for liberal support from the Government.

Important Events

At midnight of March 27, 1911, a gun fired from the Janiculum Hill in Rome inaugurated the ceremonies that marked the fiftieth anniversary of a United Italy. When the kingdom was first proclaimed the capital was at Florence. But ten years later the Union of the separate states was completed under Victor Emmanuel, and the capital was established at Rome. The ceremonies at the opening of the celebration of the fiftieth anniversary of the latter event were imposing. Among other things four busts were presented to the Nation in commemoration of the services of the four men who did so much to make possible a modern Italy. These men were Victor Emmanuel, Garibaldi, Cavour, and Mazzini. Nearly all of the great nations of Europe were represented at the opening.

JAPAN

The schools of Japan make a great deal of formal instruction in morals. The famous Imperial rescript on

education issued in 1890 lays particular stress upon this subject. This rescript, as it was reported by a Japanese correspondent to the *Outlook* for January 13, 1912, was as follows: "Know ye, Our subjects:

"Our Imperial Ancestors have founded Our Empire on a basis broad and everlasting and have deeply and firmly implanted virtue. Our subjects, ever united in loyalty and filial piety, have from generation to generation illustrated the beauty thereof. This is the glory of the fundamental character of Our Empire, and herein also lies the source of Our education. Ye, Our subjects, be filial to your parents, affectionate to your brothers and sisters; as husbands and wives be harmonious, as friends true; bear yourselves in modesty and moderation; extend your benevolence to all; pursue learning and cultivate arts, and thereby develop intellectual faculties and perfect moral powers; furthermore, advance public good and promote common interests; always respect the Constitution and observe the laws; should emergency arise, offer yourselves courageously to the State; and thus guard and maintain the prosperity of Our Imperial Throne coeval with heaven and earth. So shall ye not only be Our good and faithful subjects, but render illustrious the best traditions of your forefathers.

"The Way here set forth is indeed the teaching bequeathed by Our Imperial Ancestors, to be observed alike by Their Descendants and the subjects, infallible for all ages and true in all places. It is Our wish to lay it to heart in all reverence, in common with you, Our subjects, that we may all thus attain to the same virtue."

This emphasis on moral instruction is in marked contrast with our own avoidance of the subject as a formal study of the schools. This is regarded by many as a serious defect in our public school systems. However, as the editor of the *Outlook* says, happily, many of our teachers give a great deal of incidental moral training to their classes. "Happily also the American people are beginning

to recognize the truth of Huxley's definition of education, and to realize that nothing deserves that name unless it includes more nearly 'the instruction of the intellect in the laws of nature, under which name I include not merely things and their forces, but men and their ways, and the fashioning of the affections and of the will into an earnest and loving desire to move in harmony with these laws.' " This belief of Huxley and many others in the value of a proper fashioning of the affections and the will has served as a strong undercurrent in American education within recent years. There are indications that it is destined to receive important formal attention in all of our schools in the near future.

MEXICO

The success of the revolution in Mexico and the renunciation of supreme authority by President Diaz on the 25th of May centered a great deal of attention upon that country during the first half of last year. This was especially true in the United States because of the battles fought between the Insurrectos and the Federal Mexican troops so near the American border that American citizens and American property in Douglass, Arizona, were endangered thereby.

Contrasts

In our country there are few who do not understand that it is to every one's advantage to obey the mandates of law and order and to assist either directly or by moral support in having law enforcements and orderly conduct. But this is not so in Mexico. The population is 38 per cent. pure Indian and 43 per cent. mixed blood, with only a small proportion of this combined 81 per cent. who own any property or who understand any good reason for preferring law and order to anarchy. As is stated in an editorial in the *World's Work*, "They have a correspondingly vague conception of the duties of citizenship. In industrial initiative they are also backward. But at rebellion they are apt. Their

fathers and their father's fathers engaged in rebellion and civil war, and their Indian ancestors were fighting men for generations before." Hence, under conditions in which so many people had little to lose by strife and who found the restraints of government and the payment of taxes irksome, it was easy for *insurrecto* leaders to raise armies and successfully to defy the organized government to bring them under subjection when the insurrection became so general as it did during the past year. Besides, "the prospect of loot and the excitement of war are more alluring than the certainty of the small pay and the drudgery of peace. Moreover, in many places much of the population is never far removed from actual want; and, when a man is in need of food, the government under which he lives is likely to seem ill conducted."

But in addition to this there seems to have been ground for the charges that: (1) The people have no voice in the government—General Diaz himself very frankly saying that the people of his country are not ready for representative government; (2) that much of the most valuable land of the country is in great estates which maintain their old semi-feudal character; (3) that the group of favorites with whom President Diaz surrounded himself used their high positions for self-aggrandizement; (4) that the government has given too many valuable privileges and concessions to foreigners; (5) that President Diaz often acted in an arbitrary way, sometimes even to the extent of instructing the courts in regard to their verdicts. Besides, there have been many cases of injustice on the part of the governors of the Mexican states and their subordinates. And in Mexico there is not, as with us, a great middle class powerful enough to hold wealth, power, and corruption in check and successfully to frown upon rebellion against constituted authority.

MOROCCO

Count Johann H. Von Bernstorff has given, in the *Outlook* for January 20, 1912, the German view of the controversy over Morocco that at one time during the past year threatened the peaceful relations between Germany and France. In substance his explanation of the Moroccan question is as follows:

It is well known that until 1904 England and France were contending with each other for supremacy in Morocco. This controversy was settled by the Anglo-French agreement in that year, and a French banking syndicate at once contracted a new large loan with Morocco. Such dominating trade privileges were granted by Morocco in return that Germany intervened and secured at the Conference of Algeciras a proclamation of the independence of Morocco and the "open door" in it for trade. At the same time, however, the treaty connected with the above loan was ratified and France and Spain were given police powers in 8 open Moroccan ports. But because of unsettled and untenable conditions in Morocco it was only natural that occasion for French interference should soon occur. "The course of events will always prove to be more powerful than the most perfectly worded treaty provisions," says Count Bernstorff; and it soon became evident that Morocco and her inhabitants did not possess the strength to establish order and good government. France had the power and means at hand to do this and Germany felt that its own commercial interests could best be protected through the French control thus established in Morocco. This led to the Morocco agreement between the two countries which was made on Feb. 9, 1909, and which was based on the international agreement at Algeciras. But Germany soon saw that this 1909 agreement could only delay, but not prevent, a French protectorate for Morocco.

It was just at this time that the rebellion of certain Moroccan tribes near Fez furnished the occasion for

France to send a military force to the Moroccan capital to protect French interests there. Fez was seized and French military posts established there. As France did not seem willing to withdraw these troops, Germany protested that the Sultan of Morocco could not under such circumstances truly represent the independent government agreed upon at Algeciras. Fearing also for a revolt in southern Morocco, Germany then sent the cruiser Panther to Agadir. This act at first startled France, but the government there soon realized that Germany did not intend to dispute France's interest in Morocco. It also became clear to France, according to Count Bernstorff, that the Fez expedition was a mistake for which she would have to pay dearly. "There could be no doubt what price Germany would ask. On the one hand, increased and precise guarantees for the maintenance of the open door in Morocco, which would enable Germany to settle and do business in Morocco in spite of a French protectorate. On the other hand, a compensation in the form of colonial territory, which had already often enough been mentioned during the earlier phases of the Moroccan affair." This territory France granted, where Germany desired it, in the French Congo in a region where it would serve to unite German colonies on the Western coast of Africa. This agreement between France and Germany was reached late in 1911.

NEW ZEALAND

New Zealand has been furnishing a good model for the successful education of native populations. Not only are the native Maori children admitted to the ordinary primary schools but, in addition, native schools are provided for them in their own villages. Free secondary education is also maintained for the Maori youth who show marked ability. Arrangements have recently been made for a number of the boys to receive practical training in farming, just as it is now planned to give training in nursing to a certain number of the girls.

PERSIA

The recent events in Persia are of general interest to the friends of education not simply on account of their political and geographical significance but because, within the last few years, its people have shown unexpected capacity for self-regeneration—a regeneration that up to the time of the open opposition of Russia promised great progress in prosperity and enlightenment. Although for centuries the Persian government had been corrupt and weak, the country has always been regarded with veneration by people of the Mohammedan faith. The past history of the ancient land of Iran, of which the present Persia is but a small portion, is resplendent with great kings and warriors, with stories of the imagination that never grow old, and with the origin of religious ideas and movements that have profoundly affected the history of the world. It is also the traditional birthplace of the human race.

The present country of Persia has a population of about 10,000,000 and in size is almost equal to the area of France, Germany, and Austro-Hungary. Although only about one-third of the land is susceptible of cultivation, much of the remainder is exceptionally rich in minerals. For many years the government was an absolute despotism; but soon after the accession of the Shah Mohammed Ali, in 1907, a National Council, composed of members elected by the people and known as the Majlis, was granted. A senate was also promised, but the Shah soon showed reactionary tendencies. The new-born spirit of liberty among the people so actively resented his opposition that he abdicated and his eldest son, Sultan Ahmed Shah, then (1909) but 11 years old, was enthroned under a regency. Representative government at once made rapid strides and, in 1910, was placed on fairly firm footing. But the finances of the country were in bad shape, and the government appealed to the authorities at Washington to suggest a competent financial adviser.

Here, according to an article in the *Review of Reviews* (Jan., 1912), appears Mr. Shuster, whom a St. Petersburg journal wrathfully speaks of as the "Insolent American adventurer in a pea-jacket and a paper collar." W. Morgan Shuster is a young lawyer, now but 35, who at the close of the war with Spain went to Cuba as secretary to the Peace Commission and remained as Collector of Customs. This work was done so ably that he was afterwards sent as Collector of Customs to the Philippines, where, in 1905, he became a member of the Philippine Commission and Superintendent of Public Instruction. His success in all of these trying positions led to his selection for the serious task of solving Persia's financial problems. In this exceedingly difficult work he was meeting with great success, when Russia suddenly insisted upon his removal from the treasurership. Although the detailed reasons for this are not clear, two probable causes are mentioned by the writer of the article referred to. One was Mr. Shuster's assumption in his administering of the finances that Persia is an independent nation. The other is that, "not being versed in the suavities and sinuosities of Old-world diplomacy, he has frequently offended by his manner of blunt honesty. So long as it was believed that Mr. Shuster would consult Great Britain and Russia in administering Persian finances, there was no opposition to him. When, however, the Persian Parliament conferred upon him, as Treasurer-General, full and exclusive power, steady opposition began from both Russian and British representatives in Persia, and open hostility was evident from St. Petersburg."

Russia and Persia

The real secret of this hostility probably lies in the fact that "Persia has had the misfortune to lie across Russia's march to the southward, and of British expansion to the north." Having absorbed Turkestan and established herself securely at the capital of Afghanistan, Russia finds only the ancient land of Cyrus and Xerxes thwarting her ambitions to make her influence felt upon India. The

possession of Persia would give her seaports that are unfrozen during the entire year, and also place her a step nearer an advance upon Constantinople, the road of least resistance to which lies over the low desert plains of Asiatic Turkey. "Britain's desire to keep her hands free while German hostility is at white heat" has afforded Russia a chance for untrammeled action in Persia. And our own government was forced into the position of being able to afford Mr. Shuster only the protection that was his right as a private American citizen. His rights in this direction the Russian authorities were, however, careful to respect. But the Persian people seem to be completely disheartened because Russian troops have made it evident that Persia is to become a Muscovite dependency, if diplomacy and the menace of overwhelming numbers can bring this to pass. The main hindrance to this will probably be the unwillingness of Great Britain to permit Russia to gain access to the Persian Gulf or the Indian Ocean, because this would furnish a direct menace to her Indian possessions. If England does interfere with Russia's plans, it is likely to be done through the Anglo-Russian Agreement of 1907. The exact terms of this agreement are not known, but, in one of its provisions, it arranged for the division of Persia into three zones of influence. The portion adjoining India to be reserved to British influence, the northern regions to Russian influence, while the parts of Persia lying between these two zones of influence were to form neutral territory. So far as the public knows, this agreement provides or was entered into with the understanding that neither nation was in any way to attempt to destroy the independence of Persia.

PHILIPPINES

During the past two years the educational authorities in the Philippines have been giving a great deal of attention to the organization, extension, and proper supervision

of industrial education. The purpose of the movement has been to make the work of the schools meet more nearly the practical needs of the people of these islands. With this end in view, the courses of study have been arranged in close harmony with the prevailing industries and with a view of meeting the needs of a better home-life among the people.

The local industries of the Philippines have in the past figured very little indeed in the trade of the world. It is hoped through this industrial instruction to develop a body of skilled workmen and, at the same time, to build up a native enterprise and pride that shall greatly increase the commercial importance of the islands. But it is possible to commercialize the work of the schools and to lower the ideals of a people by placing too great emphasis upon industrial training. And, in fact, this protest is already being made against the whole Philippine scheme. But its defenders claim that the immediate needs of the people demand some such course. At the same time they claim that neither the academic training nor the ideals are being neglected. The Filipinos themselves are "more interested and more hopeful of beneficent results from the industrial phase of the work than from any other." And with their closer application and fuller coöperation thus secured, the industrial interest can readily be made a foundation for the academic. In other words, the two can be gotten together; for a method of approach to their problems that most surely enlists their interest will in the end be most successful.

RUSSIA

In a recent letter to *The Outlook*, one of the oldest and most experienced of the Russian Liberal leaders referred to the changed attitude of the common people of Russia toward the problem of human freedom. In this letter he indicates, that, though there has been little progress made toward removing repression, severity, and unjust and cruel punishments, it is evident that the common

peasants, the muzhiks, are becoming greatly interested in national questions and that they are showing this interest by a rapidly growing freedom of expression. It is significant that, while twenty-five years ago ninety per cent. of the political exiles to Siberia were from the educated and privileged class, now seventy-five per cent. of them are from the ranks of the industrial workers and the agricultural peasants.

"I think," he says, "that, in spite of many discouraging phenomena—in spite of the severity of some of our administrative methods, such as exile without trial and confinement in prisons that are terrible in discipline and sanitary condition—Russia, as a whole, has made great strides toward the position occupied by more fortunate and more cultured nations. The emancipation movement, as we are accustomed to call it, or, to speak more accurately, the Russian Revolution, was not a superficial agitation, confined to the upper classes of society. It affected all sorts and conditions of men, and awakened the minds and hearts of the whole slumbering population—the revolution overcame the inertia of centuries, called into action the untried powers of the people, set free their volition, revealed to them their latent strength, and pointed out the path that will ultimately lead to social and political regeneration." This is the spirit that makes the friends of Russia look forward hopefully to a time when it "shall derive its chief power, not from battalions of armed conscripts and batteries of quick-firing guns, but from the thoughts, feelings, and acts of a morally enlightened, intellectually cultured, and politically emancipated people." And for this regeneration Russia must look to the great mass of its population, its common, everyday, working people.

Tolstoi

The death of Count Tolstoi early in the year recalls the short-lived enterprise (the school at Yasnaia-Poliana)

in which in the early 60's he attempted to embody his fundamental principle of education, "absolute respect for the will of the child." Although this doctrine has frequently been refuted both theoretically and practically, it may not generally be known that this gifted author had before his death himself refuted some of his own statements in regard to education. In his earlier teachings he attempted to make a great distinction between the work of instruction and the work of educating the will of the child. This he later repudiated in the statement, "I recognize that the division which I then made between instruction and education is purely artificial. Instruction and education are inseparable. It is impossible to form character without transmitting knowledge; all knowledge exercises a formative influence." See the March number of *L'Education*.

SOUTH AFRICA

The native races of South Africa have made so many appeals for a higher institution of learning, that the South African Native Race Committee has appealed to the English public for a fund of £10,000 for the purpose of establishing a native college. As a basis of this appeal, the Committee calls attention to the fact that, since 1850, the enrollment in native schools has increased twenty-fold and that there has been a corresponding increase in the interest of the natives in the education of their children. To foster this spirit, funds are asked for to establish a college which will furnish opportunity to aspiring pupils and still further intensify the interest in education. Such a college would remove the necessity for going abroad for an education that is beyond that of the elementary school, and by its presence develop a native pride both for higher education and a higher degree of enlightenment.

SWEDEN

In September Sweden held elections for the lower half of the Riksdag and with such strong gains on the part of

the Liberals and the Socialists that many who are familiar with conditions in Sweden believe its monarchical form of government doomed. If this should prove true the radical movements that have progressed with such startling speed in Sweden indicate not only a republic but a socialistic republic.

As soon as the results of the election became known, the ministry resigned and a new Premier was elected who is pledged to reforms which will make the entire administrative system more truly democratic. At one of the first meetings, the new ministry was asked to consider the advisability of extending government aid to a proposed steamship line between Stockholm and San Francisco, thus indicating a rapidly changing view in regard to the functions of government. The labor disturbances that have been so characteristic of Sweden during the last decade reveal the social unrest that has been developing with these newer ideas in regard to the relation of capital to labor. These movements are especially significant in the light of the fact that popular education is older in Sweden than in any other country excepting the United States.

SWITZERLAND

Dr. Paul Ritter, the Envoy and Minister from Switzerland to the United States, gave an interesting summary of educational conditions in his country at the recent Conference for Education in the South. Switzerland, he said, supports a population of 3,700,000, although it has less than one-third the area of Florida. And its well-known prosperity he attributed to the wide diffusion of education. "Switzerland in physical respects is not a bountiful motherland; neither the climate nor the soil is favorable for agriculture, yet it is surprising what good results are obtained through the general diffusion among the agricultural classes of much technical information, susceptible of easy apprehension and ready application."

He said the Swiss people also early recognized the fact that in a healthy and progressive condition of commerce lies one of the greatest safeguards of social peace and contentment, and that to secure this they must make great sacrifices for the cause of education, "in order that, even if some of the children must start out in life burdened with poverty, they shall not also be burdened with ignorance." As a result of this educational policy no other country in Europe has as large a per capita trade. "As a whole we may say that the Swiss education produces practical men, able to turn their hands, and with success, to different things."

But to show that it has also had its scholars and men who visioned the future, he referred to the no small part that Switzerland has contributed to the solution of questions of popular education. "It has long had as its peculiar mission pedagogical reform." He then spoke of the work of Pestalozzi, Father Girard, Fellenberg, and others. Jean Baptiste Girard ("Le Père Girard") was the great Swiss educator who said, "The only, the really popular (people's) school is one in which all the elements of study serve in the cultivation of the mind, and where the child is led himself by the things he learns, and by the way in which he learns them." Although he was a grammarian of first rank himself, he said instead of "a grammar of words" let us have "a grammar of ideas." "Education in Switzerland has neither class nor sex restriction, and, therefore, the country, in its desire for truly popular education, early opened the doors of its universities to women. In almost every town and village the primary schools are attended by rich and poor alike, without distinction. In Switzerland there is no class of vagrant or destitute children which the ordinary school system fails to reach; and the visitor may see side by side an orphan who is fed and clothed by the Commune and the son of a rich man, both receiving the same instruction, each being under precisely the same discipline." Switzerland is unquestionably the most democratic of the European

states. "It will be easily understood, therefore, that the Swiss parent looks upon the schoolhouse not merely as the place where his children are fitted for making their way in the world, but as a political nursery where many of those doctrines cherished by the stanch republicans are developed and fostered among the younger generation."

As an evidence of the genuine interest in education in Switzerland, Dr. Ritter cited the fact that the sum appropriated therefor is more than twice as large as the sum disbursed for military purposes. It is worth noting that the United States does almost as well; for we are now expending over $400,000,000 each year on education, public and private, and about $225,000,000 each year on our army and navy.

TRIPOLI

Just as Europe was settling down to what seemed like a long period of peace after the amicable negotiations between France and Germany concerning their rival claims in Morocco, a serious quarrel broke out between Italy and Turkey over affairs in Tripoli. So suddenly did this quarrel become public, and so rapidly did Italy follow it up with a declaration of war and the dispatching of a warlike fleet to Tripoli, that the friends of peace seemed helpless with amazement. However, the war is not likely to be serious even if of long duration. War was declared on September 29 and, early in October, Turkey petitioned the great Powers for intervention to secure peace. Turkey's unwillingness to yield to the main points of Italy's contention has up to the present (Dec. 31) made this intervention inadvisable.

Ten years ago Italy, in return for giving up valuable interests in Tunis, obtained French recognition of her predominant rights in Tripoli. As early as 1878, the Powers had also agreed to Italy's peaceful invasion of Tripoli. But Turkey, which has exercised suzerainty for many years in Tripoli, has resented the claims of Italy

and, according to the statements of that country, has systematically boycotted her goods in all of North Africa and in Asia Minor and has subjected Italian tradesmen in Tripoli to gross indignities. The Italian government claims that it had also received many complaints from its citizens in other parts of the Ottoman Empire asking relief from unjust impositions against which protests were of no avail. For through many years of questionable diplomatic experience the "Sublime Porte" has become quite skilful in evasion and delay. Many instances of arbitrary interference with Italian merchants, engineers, and steamship companies are noted; insults and assaults against members of the Italian consular service are also mentioned; and also the fact that, on several occasions, Italian ships have been seized and damaged by Turkish war vessels and all reparation has been evaded. The government, being unwilling to have such "a system and program of preconceived hostilities" continued, finally felt it necessary to declare war.

TURKEY

Although the new government in Turkey under the leadership of what is known as the Young Turk party has had to face some of the most embarrassing conditions possible, it seemingly is beginning a modern era of government in this corrupt and benighted country. The day of "the unspeakable Turk" is disappearing under this first modern government that the country has ever known. While the finances of the country are still in bad condition, the taxes are now being justly and regularly laid and collected, the employees of the government are now promptly paid, and the general economic condition greatly improved. Fair and progressive concessions for the building of railroads into new and promising regions, and the construction by French capitalists of improved highways, promise great things for better communication and greatly increased resources.

But that which is of most interest to the friends of education is the great improvement in local administration which has brought more intelligent and progressive people into control. Under their leadership, more liberal laws and appropriations have been made, the judiciary has been freed from many of its shameful practices, the people have been lifted into a feeling of greater interest and responsibility in affairs of government, the press has been elevated and made more free, and the government has been assisted in its efforts to effect radical changes in the entire administration of public instruction. Many normal schools for both sexes have been established, students selected by competitive examination are being sent to other European countries and to America to study, and efforts are under way to provide for the building of hundreds of new school houses for elementary, secondary, and higher instruction.

PART VII

CHAPTER XI

MEETINGS—NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

The General Meeting

The N. E. A. held its general convention for 1911 in San Francisco, July 8–14.

At the general session on the evening of July 11 the president of the Association, Mrs. Ella Flagg Young, Superintendent of the public schools of Chicago, delivered an address of which the following is a part: "In most of our deliberations over educational topics we usually deprecate the work or extol it in loud praises. There is another and more desirable course: that we look to other lines of investigation which have equaled or surpassed our line of work and endeavor to extract some of the methods and spirit for our own use. We have acquired a habit of referring to the school as a melting pot, which conveys the idea that children are like metal, some gold, some silver, some brass and lead. This figure of speech only carries out the conception that the school seems to be a place where we are trying to make all children alike. The public school is not a melting pot; it is the matrix of a nation teeming with life. We must hold to our idea that the public school must be great in the opportunities that are offered to every boy and every girl that comes within its doors. We can't give out a fixed theory of education because every teacher sees for himself a movement of the people and the effort of the school to keep

pace. And we can't give out a fixed theory because it would create a prejudicial attitude toward the result. But in order to accomplish something we must establish an hypothesis in education as in other sciences. We establish it for the type, and variations we view not as variations within the type human, but from the type human. The average is either advancing or retrograding, and hence we must hold to our hypothesis of what is education. And we must watch for the tentative conditions by which we readjust our theory. These must be kept uppermost in the mind. The great work of this association is to bring together the men and women teaching in the schools, to broaden their outlook and vision of life and to let them know what it is to be a worker in the educational field, that they shall have power to discern and reinforce life and the eternal in every boy and girl who comes within or under the influence of any man or woman teaching in this country."

AMERICANISM. — Native Americans are not apt to realize the changes occurring as a result of foreign immigration. Doctor Benjamin Ide Wheeler, of the University of California, spoke at the opening session of the convention on the change in educational conditions, ideals, and practice that has occurred in America within the last hundred years. This has given us, he said, entirely new tasks to perform. "The fact is the old United States is rapidly passing from the scene, and a new people, mixed of the blood of Europe, are coming in and assuming control and becoming the new American people. In the last few years, the scales have tipped from the old Anglo-Saxon inhabitant to the newcomers. And whether we like it or not, we must conform. Now, the question arises, Must that be so of our ideas and ideals? Can our heritage be transferred from the old possession to the new? We are Americans by virtue of certain things called Americanisms. Americanism means a willingness to judge the individual by himself, not by the class to which he belongs

or the amount of money he possesses. It means the abhorrence of judgments by fixed standards. It means a shifting of perspective in human things so that little things do not get to be big things. It means a possession of soul-cleansing humor, so that one shall not always take life too seriously or be flattened out by defeats. We are Americans because we believe in the realization of the brotherhood of man a little more than other nations. We are Americans because we are not caught in the ruts of tradition. We believe that everything alive is growing better. America holds out an equal opportunity to all the sons of men; and all men, whatever their wealth or birth, stand equal before the law. This is the religion of a land where all the races are assembling for the creation of a new type, the Occidental man, as against the Oriental."

THE LIFE OF THE TEACHER.—The possibilities for service in teaching were never before so great as they are at present. Charles Zueblin, a publicist of Boston, spoke on "The Life of the Teacher." He said: "The heritage of the nineteenth century is three fold—industrial organization, the democratic spirit, the cosmic sense." The latter he explained by saying that humanity, the world, the universe, and God, have a larger meaning because of scientific discoveries and this larger meaning manifests itself in better character. The goal for the pupil in education is for occupation, citizenship, and character. It is also three fold in its ideals—creation, service, harmony. The teacher who would realize these ideals must have, as her trinity of possibilities, individuality, independence, inspiration. "Art is the expression of surplus energy. If the teacher is to have individuality to make her work an art, she must have much preparation, few pupils, good living. Energy must not be consumed in undertaking the impossible because of insufficient preparation, overwork, or a low standard of living. She must live, at least spiritually, as well as her patrons."

On the subject of teachers' salaries he said: "Equal wages for men and women are ultimately desirable; but immediately a minimum wage is more important. The effort to give women men's wages must not result in giving men women's wages. We must have more rather than fewer men in the schools, that we may have men not merely in authority, but as colleagues and comrades.— The teacher must have communion with fellowmen. Both sexes are needed for normality and harmony. The teacher must have and be an inspiration. She has the inspiration of contact with youth, minds immature but unspoiled, unfolding according to the law of the cosmos. The teacher must also enjoy the inspiration of nature in flower and sky, by excursion and reading. The teacher must have the inspiration of the Infinite. Then, indeed, will soul kindle soul, and industrial organization, the democratic spirit, and the cosmic sense be incarnated in our children in creative work, public service, and harmony of soul."

Scientific Efficiency.—It was but natural that the live topic of scientific management should receive attention. The president of the National Council of the N. E. A., Charles H. Keyes, referred to the need of a carefully chosen committee to consider the formulation and adoption of scientific tests and standards in the work of the schools. He said: "In education we have hardly begun scientifically to measure efficiency. It is time to begin the work of establishing scientific standards. I beg to suggest that the council at once constitute or authorize the appointment of a committee to begin work on the subject of tests and standards of the efficiency of schools and school systems. To do this effectively will require a carefully chosen committee with an interest in this particular field of study and with skill in its pursuit. And for the perfection and justification of its findings the widest publicity and most thorough and critical discussion will be necessary."

Health Officers.—The health of the child is beginning to receive more of the attention that its value warrants. In view of the rapid growth of medical inspection in the schools, the following statements of Dr. N. K. Foster, of Oakland, in regard to the proper training for efficient service as health officer (medical inspector) in the schools are interesting: "As far as the training of the members of this profession is concerned, they should have a general medical education and also a special education along lines which the usual medical course does not include—sanitation, hygiene, criminology and the like. Examinations in the schools by competent officers, simple examinations that would require a few minutes, would be the means of saving many children from useless lives and help to make them successful and useful citizens. Many children are going down in the schools because they are suffering from some removable defect which an examiner could detect and arrest in its growth."

Sex Hygiene.—Opinion is divided as to whether this subject shall be taught in school, in the home, or even at all. The necessity for teaching sex hygiene so that future generations may be saved from disease and physical misery was strongly emphasized by Dr. Frances M. Greene of Cambridge, Mass. "The mother," she said, "is the most fit person to teach the child the perils of disease. The sex education of parents is, therefore, the first step; we must begin in the home. The same sex education for boys and girls must be adopted, with no secrecy excepting so far as refinement requires. Mothers and teachers alike must cease to look upon sex subjects as impure, but must properly train the child, for upon understanding them rest human life and human happiness. Shall we be masters or slaves? The habit of thinking pure and clean thoughts is most important. Get a child to thinking right, then combine that with self-control, and we may with safety send children into the world."

HOME ECONOMICS.—The committee appointed to consider the subject or subjects that have received the various names of "Household Science," "Domestic Science," etc., made the following recommendations:

First: In the judgment of the committee the term "Home Economics" should be used to designate the subject as a whole wherever it is taught, and should be qualified only by the terms elementary, secondary, and higher, as commonly applied to courses of instruction in different grades.

Second: Home economics is a distinctive subject of instruction, and includes the economic, sanitary, and æsthetic aspect of food, clothing, and shelter, as connected with their selection, preparation, and use by the family in the home or by other groups of people.

Third: Instruction in this subject should be based on the laws of the physical, biological, and sociological sciences. The presentation should be graded according to the maturity, attainment, and purposes of the students.

Fourth: (*a*) Elementary schools. In the elementary schools the central thought should be the acquiring of skill.

(*b*) Secondary schools. In the secondary schools, while the work should lead to greater skill, it should also develop the reason why and cultivate the scientific method of thought by means of experiment. To this end it should be correlated carefully with the work in other subjects so as to economize the time of teachers and students.

(*c*) Higher institutions: In the higher institutions, while skill and applied science and art are fundamental in the instruction, there should be the broader scientific, economic, and sociologic view, and wherever practicable the development of research.

PREPARATION FOR TEACHING.—The discussion of this question revealed a great divergence of ideals and practice. But the conclusion was reached that for teaching, as for other professional training, there is a desirable preparation

and that it ought to be defined by the profession. A committee was accordingly appointed by the chairman of the National Council to study and report upon the question.

Aside from the necessary knowledge, two of the qualifications for teaching that received the most emphasis were health and personality. Without good health, cheerfulness, vivacity, and enthusiasm are practically impossible. Physical strength and the power of endurance are valuable assets for teaching. But even more important is a good personality. "As is the teacher, so is the school. A gloomy temperament never wins or helps the child."

KINDERGARTENS.—Outdoor kindergartens were strongly advocated by several speakers at the Department of Kindergarten Education meetings. Superintendent Frank E. Parlin of Cambridge, Mass., said: "Although a friend of the kindergarten, I believe the orthodox type is neither sacred nor perfect; that the position of the conservative kindergartners is unwise and untenable; that they emphasize the most defective parts of Froebel's system and neglect his most valuable principles. The brain of the child at the kindergarten age is ready for sensory, motor, and language training only. The kindergarten of the future will be true to its name, a garden of children; will generally be out of doors, in the sunlight and open air, among the trees and flowers, and associated with birds and animals, providing healthful conditions for the body, appropriate food for the senses, abundant exercise for the muscles, ample scope for the imagination and unfailing topics for conversation. The healthful growth of the child will be the prime consideration—large lungs, good digestion, a strong heart, and steady nerves outranking peg-sticking and a meager knowledge of sphere, cylinder, and cube."

THE EXCEPTIONAL CHILD.—The training of the exceptional child received able treatment in a paper read by Dr. Henry J. Goddard of the New Jersey Training School for Feeble Minded Children. He said in part: "Back-

wardness and mental deficiency have become especially prominent of late years, because of the changes in our school conditions. The curricula are much more crowded and elaborate and can only be gone through by those of good ability. The social and industrial worlds have changed; so only those who have passed through a reasonable course of education can secure such positions as will enable them to earn a living. The backward child who is not feeble-minded can be discovered and satisfactory conditions provided for him in the form of a special class, where he can be brought up to normal and prepared to earn an honest living."

Test of Mental Capacity.—Dr. Goddard also spoke of the necessity of having more accurate mental capacity tests for the proper placing of children in school. In this connection he said: "The misplacement of children in schools, getting them too high or too low for their mental capacity, is responsible for much of the truancy and incorrigibility. We are beginning to recognize that many of our difficulties in school are the result of differences in inborn capacity rather than in inborn wickedness. It is therefore necessary to have some method of measuring that inborn capacity. The research department of the New Jersey Training School for Feeble Minded Children has carried out a systematic testing of an entire school population of 2,000 children by the Binet method. The results amount to almost a mathematical proof of the accuracy of this system. It shows that there are 4 per cent. of children who are precocious or better in mentality than the average child; 78 per cent. are normal; 15 per cent. are backward; and 3 per cent. are feeble-minded."

Articulation of High School and College.—Clarence D. Kingsley, of Brooklyn, who was Chairman of the committee on such articulation, said in part in his report: "The committee considers as functions of the high school that it must instruct every student in the elements of good citizenship—a duty that cannot be dele-

gated to the college, because there is no guarantee that any particular student will go to college. It believes high-school courses must be flexible, for the high-school period is that in which youth discovers his bent. It believes broad vocational instruction should find place in the high-school, to prepare for efficiency; it believes mechanical arts, agriculture, or household science, should be recognized as rational elements in the education of all boys and girls, and especially of those who have not as yet chosen their vocation. The committee maintains that any student who has satisfactorily completed a well-planned high-school course should be admitted to college." In concluding, the committee expressed the opinion that the most serious objection to the present condition is its "restrictive effect upon true high-school development."

Shortening the Period for Higher Education.—President Baker, of the University of Colorado, made a plea for the shortening of the period for higher education by about two years by an advantageous combining of the work of the college and the university. In part he said: "Results are not proportionate to the time and expenditure, and the public is asking for shorter time, greater efficiency, and an adjustment of educational aims to real civic needs, both practical and ideal. The first remedy is selection and elimination as applied to subjects and topics of study. Extent of ground covered is the criterion for promotion or for admission to college. This is the American standard of quantity applied to our education. A source of economy is adapting method to the nature of the subject. The doctrine that all subjects have a like value and should be taught in the same way and produce the same results, I believe to be utterly false and everywhere harmful.

"This country should adopt either the English or the German type of university, but not both. It is possible to end the college and begin the university at 20 instead of 22, thus saving two years. Do not misunderstand at

this point; the idea is not to lower the standard of American education, but rather to readjust and strengthen it. The university, that is, the graduate school, and the last two years of college should be shaken together and reorganized into one division of education, namely, a real university, preparation for which should end at 20. The plan would eliminate the duplication between high schools and colleges, and reduce the time limit of preparatory education. It would offer university methods earlier—an immense pedagogical gain. The problem of reorganization includes all distinctly vocational education, and only a beginning of the solution has been made in this country. If there is a demand for the practical, there is also an insistent claim for the humanistic side and for profound scientific knowledge. I believe we must adapt to present needs the essential principles of humanism. If there is a criticism more just than another it is that the schools do not give satisfactory results in terms of will. Will training is the third of the vital problems of reorganization, but, perhaps, first in importance. Lack of it is an evil of society, but also of the schools, and because much of the educational philosophy is soft. Does any one doubt that reorganization must come, if not from within, then by outward compulsion, and that it is best for us to get about the work speedily?"

Music.—Arthur Foote, an American composer, delivered an interesting address in which he emphasized the vital necessity of music being a part of every one's practical education. Among other things he said: "Forty years ago music was barely thought of as forming a possible part of real education. It was taught mainly in the primary grades, while in men's colleges the art was demonstrated largely through glee clubs and small orchestras. In 1875, Hugh Clarke, a professor of the University of Pennsylvania, introduced music on an academic basis in complete form along the same lines on which Latin and mathematics were taught.

"There are two distinct courses in the teaching of music in schools and colleges—the theoretical and applied, and the theory and history of music. In the schools many pupils are given their first intelligent conception of music, and learn for the first time that it is intellectual as well as emotional and sensuous. Well directed work is being carried on now in our colleges, a prominent feature of which is the student's chorus. Out of forty-seven colleges, half grant credit in the study of music leading to the degree of A.B., while nine colleges give music credit for entrance examinations. All these signs are encouraging to those who are watching the healthy, normal growth of music as a part of our national life, only one point being of a depressing nature, and that is the national defect in thoroughness in the incidentals and fundamentals. Just as many children are unable to distinguish between the major and minor chords, we find as many adults unable to hear music with intelligence. Inasmuch as colleges are including the study of harmony and counterpoint at their entrance examinations, it is vital that the average training in preparatory work shall be better than it has so far proved."

Teaching of Morals.—The committee that had been appointed in 1909 to consider the question of the teaching of morals in the schools embodied their recommendations in a booklet of some 75 pages. In presenting this to the National Council of the N. E. A., the following statement of the matter was made: "The nineteenth century was the marvel of the ages in the number and utility of mechanical inventions, in the progress of physical sciences and their application to the industries, and especially in the accumulation of wealth and the capitalistic centralization of the control of the output and distribution of the comforts and necessaries of life. The chief problem of the twentieth century is to control these gigantic energies, to bring them under the reign of law, to make them ministering servants. The chief problems of trade, govern-

ment and society, as well as of individual character, are ethical problems—questions of right and wrong, justice and injustice, truth and falsehood, honesty and dishonesty. The great need of the times is not so much for men with brains and money, but for men who possess common morality. We need electors who can read their ballots and officials who are capable of managing official affairs; but the greatest need is for men who will not prostitute their talents by buying the poor man's vote, bribing the weak official or corrupting courts of justice. Much vice and crime are still due to ignorance and inefficiency, but learning and skill alone will not solve our most important economic, social and political problems. Along with these must be the awakening of the moral conscience, the development of moral judgment, the disposition to be guided by moral principles, and especially to apply ethical principles to the practical affairs of life.

A World Problem

"The subject of moral education is a world problem and is engaging the attention of all leading nations. An epoch-making change was effected in France when, according to the law of 1882, instruction in morals and civics was made compulsory in all the elementary schools of the republic. Japanese education has been practically remade since the imperial rescript of 1890. In the autumn of 1906, a number of persons met in private conference in London to consider whether more might not be done by means of moral instruction and training in schools to impart higher ideals of conduct, to strengthen character, and to promote readiness to work together for social ends. The outcome of this meeting was the appointment of an international committee which has investigated the subject of moral education in most civilized nations, and which in 1908 submitted an elaborate report. In the United States moral education is also receiving special attention. An American auxiliary to the international committee on moral education was appointed with Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler and Dr. Clifford

W. Barnes as president and secretary respectively. At the Los Angeles meeting of the National Education Association this committee was appointed to investigate the practical aspect of moral education in the United States and to report a feasible course for use in the public schools.

"The Character Development League is an organization which has recently been incorporated, with headquarters in the City of New York. The purpose of this organization is to furnish without charge a series of character lessons for use in the public schools. The Religious Education Association is a national organization which has for one of its aims the improvement of moral instruction in the public school. Moral education has frequently been discussed in educational meetings, has been treated in magazine articles and books, and is rapidly finding a place in the course of study in the most progressive public schools. These things are but slight indications of the national interest already manifested in this subject. The time has arrived for a general forward movement. Proper regard for the law and properly constituted authority should be inculcated in the child from the time he enters the public school, to the end that when he leaves it, he will continue to respect and obey the law and endeavor to have others do likewise. The public school which fails to inculcate proper regard for law and order has failed in one of its chief duties. In order that moral instruction may not be left to chance, which frequently means neglect altogether, a tentative course is submitted as part of this report. It is recommended that such modification of this course be made as may be found necessary to meet the needs of different localities and that definite instructions be given from time to time. Such moral instruction has proven highly beneficial in France, Japan, and in almost every country where it has been tried under favorable conditions. Many teachers in this country favor such a course, and moral instruction is recommended as a vital part of moral education by the

A Tentative Course Prepared

International Committee appointed by Great Britain. In order that this instruction may be vital and effective, it is recommended that committees of teachers collect and collate suitable material from history, literature, daily life and other sources, to illustrate and enforce these lessons, and that means be provided for publishing and distributing this material."

In discussing this report Charles E. Hugh of the University of California, said: "Fear, respect and affection have always been recognized as the three fundamental moral instincts. But it has been found that all three are declining in the modern child. Most of the things he once feared are gone; he often has little respect for his parents because he excels them in so many things, and because the newer social system removes child and parent from the physical contact that is the basis of affection. But no harm is done so long as the child's respect for something remains; and this seeming decline in instincts if properly guided and guarded may be looked upon as a great advance toward a new democracy and social fellowship of man."

Committees Appointed.—There were two important committees appointed at the meeting of the N. E. A. One was a committee of 7 members to coöperate with a similar committee appointed by the American Medical Society at its meetings in Los Angeles. The object of the joint committees is to have the different boards of health and boards of education of the United States to get together and, with united effort, do all that is possible to do for the safeguarding and promotion of the health of the children attending the public schools. They are to get together and discuss health conditions and questions of hygiene and, above all, the best means of securing desired results. The results of their conclusions are to be published by the N. E. A. in the usual pamphlet form.

Another exceedingly important committee that was appointed is to take up the problems of the rural schools. Many scientific reports on courses of study, etc., for

city schools have been made in the past, but no such reports have been made for rural schools. The 11 members on this committee are to make a tentative report at the St. Louis meeting, in February, 1912, with a view of making a full report at the general convention at Chicago in July.

Politics in the N. E. A.—A thoughtful editorial in one of the San Francisco daily papers called attention to a tendency in the management of the affairs of this great representative body of American education which is greatly to be deplored. The editor speaks of alleged "deals" and "strategy" of all sorts in order to get action by the Association which directly, or by implication, might be quoted as an "indorsement" of some policy. The favorite method of obtaining such indorsement in politics is to secure the election of a person prominently standing for the policy. "And into such contests there always enter the rivalries of personal ambitions. Often in the end there come to be false rumors, mean insinuations, and general backbiting."

How much of such alleged "dirty politics" is in the N. E. A. the editor said he did not know; but that he did know that mean talk and unworthy practice are not good for any association. Any collective expression of opinion, to have value, must be the result of conviction after careful investigation, fair discussion, and honest judgment. Skillful "politics" or "parliamentary strategy" may give a momentary triumph to the winning individual or party, but it inevitably harms the cause under whose name the unworthy thing is done. And the higher the cause stands in the estimation of the people, the greater the harm done to it.

The cause of education is rapidly assuming a dignity and importance never before accorded it. Teachers are gaining recognition as leaders in moral and social, as well as intellectual leadership. And if, as teachers, our conventions are open to practices of the type now so generally

discredited everywhere, our deliberations will have little weight with the public and we ourselves come under well-deserved suspicion. But, what is even worse, we shall fail in our search for the truth and spend our energies upon the contentions that only lead to bitterness and disaster. The N. E. A. can certainly muster worthy leaders and worthy determination enough to make it impossible for the unworthy to wreck its standing and usefulness. When fair-minded outsiders begin to classify our conventions with those of the lower type of other meetings it is high time to call a halt.

Department of Superintendence of the N. E. A.

The annual Convention of the Department of Superintendence of the N. E. A. convened in Mobile, Ala., Feb. 23. Although the addresses of welcome breathed the spirit of the larger hope and firmer determination that has so rapidly developed in the South within the last few years, they also showed a full recognition of the difficulties to overcome in the full and proper realization of all that the wonderful resources of the South make it possible for it to be. Some of these difficulties of the "Southland" are the comparative poverty of many sections, the lack of compulsory attendance laws—seven of its States still lack in this respect—and the fact that it is maintaining a dual system of schools—one for the whites and the other for the negroes. The general interest manifested by the delegates from all parts of the United States in these problems of the South speaks well for the broad and helpful sympathy of our people. Probably nowhere else, certainly in no country presenting as great an area of territory and as wide a diversity of conditions, is an intelligent and active sympathy more manifest than in these United States. And this common interest and desire to help are nowhere quite so evident as when they center about the welfare of the child. President William M. Davidson, of Omaha, said that "Accomplishment"

was to be the keynote of the Convention. "Great strides forward have been made in the past decade. And now, instead of critically reviewing, analyzing, and dissecting the accomplished work, we meet for a mutual interchange of ideas, for impetus, and inspiration."

In the meeting of the Committee on Agricultural Education the general trend of the addresses encouraged the "Back to the Land" movement. Its chairman, Homer H. Shurley of Cedar Falls, Iowa, laid stress on the importance of the various States legally authorizing local school authorities to introduce agriculture into the curriculum. "The nation interests itself in everything appertaining to general concern, except education. Congress is doing more for the forests and water power, for the rivers and harbors, for the reclamation of land and the restoration of soils, for regulation of prices, for determining reasonable railway rates, and for aiding business enterprises, than it is doing for the individuals who in the future will have to manage these numberless industries and interests." Congress has been urged to give the price of one battleship each year for vocational education so that this condition may, at least in part, be remedied for other occupations, as well as for farming. The urgent need for qualified teachers for rural schools and the necessity for consolidation of schools and school interests in country districts, were also emphasized.

Uniform Statistics.—The committee which had under consideration the problem of securing uniformity of form and method for making out all statistical reports, presented resolutions which should mark an important step toward making a comparison of results everywhere possible and summaries of general achievements and conditions entirely trustworthy. These resolutions, which were unanimously adopted, are as follows:

1. That the terms and definitions used by the United States Census Bureau and the Bureau of Education be accepted and employed in collecting and reporting all

local data by the States, supplementing such other terms as the statutes of the individual States may require.

2. That the blank forms employed by the State departments for collecting statistics, so far as practicable, be based upon the arrangement used by the United States Census Bureau.

3. That the facts of educational interest tabulated by the United States Bureau of Education be fully and uniformly reported by the States.

4. That the printed reports of the States cover, so far as practicable, for each State the same scope of educational activity as that covered by the reports of the Bureau of Education for the entire nation.

INDIAN EDUCATION.—In a paper on the education of the American Indian, Commissioner Valentine said: "The education of the Indians is a different task from any other educational problem in that it is the education of families as well as of individuals—of the father and mother, the old grandfather or grandmother, and the children. The children's school is only one branch of the work, and the problem of our superintendence is much more intimately concerned with the adults than our white education is, though not perhaps more than it ought to be." He said that in the 26 States in which Indians still live their education should become a part of the general educational system of these States, and in so far as possible the Indians should be trained in the public schools. "The failure on the part of any State to provide soon for the coördination of Indian education with the education of its other peoples, will weight it with a heavy burden in time to come and bring it, as to a large part of those who could become productive citizens, into educational insolvency." Compulsory attendance laws and their enforcement are needed for the Indian as well as for others. But, above all, moral education is needed for the Indian; for, in certain aspects, it is necessary to create his moral life anew, or at least to modify it or divert it

from the path of centuries. And this moral education must go hand in hand with his intellectual training, for "It is one of the basic truths of education that, if we train a man's mind ahead of his moral sense, we do him and the community harm. The sad proof of this statement lies in the fact that it seems to be the rule rather than the exception that the more educated members of the Indian race to-day prey upon their own people to an even greater degree than does the white man." The basis of this moral education for the Indian he would find in industrial work.

Resolutions.—Before adjournment, the Committee on Resolutions made a report, which was unanimously adopted. As these resolutions deal with educational matters which are of general interest, they are quoted practically entire. Resolved, That:

1. This department recognizes the steadily increasing value of the United States Bureau of Education in gathering and making available educational facts and statistics.

(A committee of five, to be known as the Committee on the Bureau of Education, was appointed to coöperate with a similar committee of the N. E. A. in furthering the interests of educational progress through the United States Bureau of Education.)

2. The question of the extension of the amount and the character of Federal aid given to education is assuming great importance and demands the earnest consideration of all interested in education. This department recommends that this question be given a place upon the next program of the department.

3. It is the sense of the Department of Superintendence that uniform school records and reports are essential to the intelligent comparison of school systems for the purpose of increasing the efficiency of educational administration. It, therefore, recommends the adoption by school authorities of the forms of record and reports as submitted by its committee on uniform school reports,

provided that said forms shall be modified and improved as may be found expedient from year to year by conference of the United States Bureau of Education, the Bureau of the Census, the National Association of School Accounting Officers, and the Committee on Uniform School Records and the reports of the Department of Superintendence.

4. The Department of Superintendence recognizes the present lack of uniformity in nomenclature found in texts in English grammar as confusing and unnecessary. It therefore authorizes the president of this department to appoint a committee of five to formulate and report at the next annual meeting of this department a system of nomenclature for texts in English grammar and recommends that publishers of such texts use this system if it is adopted by the department.

5. The Department of Superintendence approves of the use of school buildings as community centers and recognizes in this movement a socializing force of immense significance. Genuine increase in efficiency is possible only where there exists the heartiest coöperation on the part of all agencies aiming at social advancement. The establishment during recent years of many organizations and societies devoted to the solution of various specific educational and social problems is most encouraging to all devoted to the public welfare.

6. The department is most heartily in sympathy with the policy of the Bureau of Indian Affairs to promote and encourage the attendance of Indian children in the public schools, and authorizes the outgoing president to appoint a committee of five to investigate the present conditions of the Indians with reference to their relation to the public schools, for the purpose of determining what cooperation or supplemental work is practical.

The Resolutions then close with an expression of appreciation for the many courtesies shown the visiting members.

CHAPTER XII

MEETINGS—(*Continued*)

The Child Welfare Congress

THE Child Welfare Congress was convened in Washington, D. C., April 25. The president of the Congress, Mrs. Frederick Schoff, stated the objects of the Congress to be "to raise the standards of home life; to give young people opportunities to learn how to care for children, so that when they assume the duties of parenthood they will have some conception of the methods that will best develop the physical, intellectual, and spiritual nature of the child; to bring into closer connection the home and the school, so that teachers and parents may coöperate intelligently in the education of the child."

Mrs. Schoff emphasized the need for more intelligent and sympathetic parenthood by saying: "Parents, as well as teachers, need to be taught to understand the mental and physical needs of children and to educate the child according to the child's understanding. A lack of this sympathy is responsible for qualities in children for which they are blamed while they are really not responsible." Failure on the part of adults to accept and appreciate the viewpoint of the child, is responsible for the dwarfing of the young intellect, she said, and of creating in the immature mind a sense of injustice that should never exist.

THE HOME AND THE CHILD.—Some of the important matters emphasized by other speakers at the Congress pertained to the child's play, the child's morals, the child's health, and the coöperation of the home and the

school. Dr. Tom A. Williams, of Washington, decried the fact that small children are so often put in the charge of nursemaids, who know nothing of rearing children and do not know how to teach the child to play. Play is both natural and important to the child. It is its work. He asserted that the child's parents should play with it and that its father should not be known in the home "only as an associate and a provider of food and clothing." Reverend Dr. Charles Wood deprecated the lack of wisdom of rich parents who hamper their children and send them out into the world so poorly prepared to meet its issues that they are trampled on and pushed aside by the better prepared children of the poor. He classed as wicked the wealthy society people who seek to escape all care and responsibility in regard to their children. "These people should realize that back of their own success lay the hard work and sense of responsibility enjoyed by them when they were young." Instead of keeping their children from contact with the outside world, he said parents should teach their children to bear responsibility, to mix with their fellows, and to learn to make their own way in life. The sons of the rich with whom this is not done, he believed, are more to be pitied than to be envied. The tendency not to do it is one of the great dangers of the age. "It is weakening the race, and destroying the very class of people who should be the backbone of the country. Properly trained, the child of the rich has every advantage, and should follow in his father's successful footsteps. It is a well-known fact that few of the leading men in this country are the sons of wealthy parents, and that the majority of them worked their way up from comparative poverty. There are a few exceptions, but where the exceptions occur it will be found that the parents of the child were sensible enough to begin early to teach him that he had work to perform and his way to make."

Neglected Children of the Rich

The Reverend Dr. W. W. McMaster declared that entirely too many fathers "hide behind their business and their pleasure and leave the entire care of the children rest on the shoulders of the mothers." The neglect of the father is often the cause of failure in life. Many fathers allow themselves needlessly to drift away from their children "until they are almost strangers in their own homes. Even in their leisure hours, many fathers do not wish to be bothered by their children. They leave the house in the morning before the children are up; they return late at night, tired out, and do not care to see their children. When they have a holiday they make themselves believe they are entitled to a day of rest, and to many fathers a day of rest does not mean a day spent in the company of their families."

Busy Fathers

Doctor J. George Becht, now Secretary of the State Board of Education in Pennsylvania, spoke of the tendency of governing by fear to cause the child to practice deception. "You cannot build a sound morality on fear," he said, "nor can you hope to make the child more than a tactful diplomat by the use of rigorous measures of correction. Fear should be banished from the home and the school, and in its place should come a wholesome, strong sympathy The parent should get near to the child." But Doctor Becht indicated that it would be a great mistake absolutely to abolish corporal punishment. He said: "Personally, I am not in favor of corporal punishment of children; but I do believe that in instances where corporal punishment is the only method with which to deal with the child it would be a great mistake not to use it. Maudlin sympathy is as dangerous as flogging."

The Reverend Floyd W. Tomkins, of Philadelphia, spoke strongly against the modern tendency toward dwelling in tenements that leaves so little opportunity for furnishing real home opportunities for children. "In this time, when we are prone to hurry forward, regardless of things, many of us have grown to disregard

Tenement Life

the meaning of home. The tendency of modernism seems to have brought an element of complexity into civilization, which, within the many and varied interests of father and mother, have left the child without that parental care so necessary in his younger years. I regard tenements as dangerous to the child. Cooped up in a modern flat, without the advantage of the old-fashioned back yard, the child cannot have the healthy exercise his ancestors enjoyed. He cannot romp and play in the open air; he is made part of a great cosmopolitan system, and no attention is paid to him. When I was a boy, I was allowed to eat at the family table. There I gathered the wisdom of my elders, enjoyed their companionship as only a child can enjoy the companionship of those older than himself. I felt that I was part of the family. Now the child is supposed to eat with his nursemaid."

Mrs. Orville T. Bright, of Chicago, made many suggestions concerning the coöperation between the home and the school. One thing that she particularly denounced was the tendency of some parents "to settle the teacher whenever in their judgment their children are not getting due consideration in school, or when they have come into conflict with the teacher's authority. Parents would not feel that way if they knew their child's teacher personally."

The International Kindergarten Union

This association held its annual meeting in Cincinnati, April 15–28. President Charles W. Dabney of the University of Cincinnati in his address of welcome said: "It is a privilege and honor to join in welcoming the Kindergarten Union to Cincinnati. With some six hundred other cities and towns in America, Cincinnati is deeply grateful to this association for the inspiration it has given us and the noble service it has rendered our little ones. My first feeling as I look into your faces is one of deepest gratitude, for you have taught us the ways of the child and the right way of training him to live and work in

this beautiful world. The next feeling that moves me is one of amazement at the stupendous work that you have accomplished. It is only seventy-four years since Froebel established his first kindergarten at Keilhau; it is only forty-three years since Miss Peabody, Miss Haines, and Miss Blow established the first kindergartens in this country. Now 200,000 children are being trained by some 6,000 teachers. How many kindergartens there are in the world we do not know, but we do know that the gospel of Froebel has already leavened the methods of the schools of all civilized nations. Out of the kindergarten has come the free library idea, the playground idea—in fact, all the new plans for the saving and training of children. The kindergarten idea is bearing fruit in hundreds of ways in improving mankind. Think, for example, of the influence that play, alone, is having in the moral, intellectual, and artistic development of the children. The influence of play in developing the morals and brightening the intellect is well understood, but perhaps we are only beginning to understand what an influence it has in promoting art."

Wrong Ideas. — In commenting on an entirely too general idea concerning the kindergarten, a writer in one of the daily papers of Cincinnati said: "It is an astonishing thing, when one thinks about it, that to many women the kindergarten stands for a baby school—just a place of childish games, songs, and a kind of day nursery, when, in reality, it means so much more than that. In the first place, the kindergarten teacher leads the little children from the games and plays to the universal principles that underlie the laws of life and the good of humanity. She teaches them the universal good that exists in homes and mothers; leads them from plays to outside things—to the people who work for babies, then to state life in the shape of patriotic songs and the stories of patriotic heroes like Lincoln and Washington; then to universal life as exemplified by mother earth, illustrated by the

planting of seeds, gardens, rain and wind; teaches that without air and water there would be no life, and leads the children up to God through the natural channels, teaching the unseen face of God in nature in a wondrous, beautiful way, until the child himself almost unconsciously feels and believes in his unseen Maker. Every girl should take one year, at least, of kindergarten training as a spiritual preparation for motherhood."

In marked contrast to these favorable words in regard to the kindergarten is the following comment of a Chicago paper when the first kindergarten was opened in that city some years ago—"A woman has opened her house in Chicago to teach children to *play*. Can a duck swim?"

Annual Conference for Education in the South

The fourteenth Annual Conference for Education in the South convened in Jacksonville, Florida, on April 20. Hon. William M. Holloway, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, in an interesting address of welcome, said that in Florida the people were solving some of their own educational problems wisely and well. "But," he added, "we need your sympathy and encouragement in the solution of other problems whose correct solution is vital to the best interests and highest welfare of this Commonwealth." And this, in general, he said, is true of many portions of the South where money is badly needed for the proper education of the children. A good illustration of this is afforded by the following fact: The average assessed valuation of property in Wisconsin and Michigan per child of school age is $1966; in the State of New York it is $2660. On the other hand, the average assessed valuation of each child of school age in the Appalachian Mountain region of North Carolina is less than $300. "Florida," Superintendent Holloway said, "is the only State whose legislature by constitutional inhibition is prevented from appropriating

Comparative Valuations

money to the public schools. We are unique in that our legislature may appropriate money for any public purpose under the sun except to the public schools." He said it could appropriate money for monuments for the heroic dead but not for the living boys and girls; for the equipment and maintenance of the higher institutions of learning, with less than 1000 students, but not for the 250,000 sons and daughters of the taxpayers and honest yeomanry of the commonwealth. He said, however, that out of 47 counties of the State 40 of them were now levying for school purposes the maximum 7 mills permitted by the State Constitution, and that only one county was levying less than 6 mills. Florida was also reported as having a State organization for the betterment of the schools, with a membership of over 10,000.

Rural Coöperation.—Dr. John Lee Coulter, of the University of Minnesota, spoke upon the subject of rural coöperation. In his address, he said that the only way for the farmers to make a success of their business was for them to organize and to work together. "Up in Minnesota they have organized creameries, and can make more butter and get a better price for it than in the old way. Another advantage of organization is the fact that a number of poor farmers can get together and put up a small sum of money which will enable them to borrow enough money to go into business. This coöperation works in the grain business, the cotton business; and even in the store business it pays. This same neighborhood in Minnesota has a telephone system and an insurance company, run upon the same lines of coöperation. Organizations among the farmers and growers of California, Texas, and Virginia are all working well, as well as are those of Sweden and Denmark The purpose of these organizations is to learn how to market produce, as well as raise it."

O. H. Benson, of the Department of Agriculture at Washington, delivered a helpful address on the newer

ideas in agricultural education. In his opinion one of the most important factors in agricultural development is child life. And he said it is remarkable the progress children have made in their knowledge of agriculture. Not only boys but young girls are becoming deeply interested in the subject. He told of how in Iowa outings are held in the interests of education and of the great interest manifested by every one. Athletics form an important factor in these outings, and contests are held between townships. Such other contests as corn-shelling and rope-tying feats also arouse intense interest in the cause of education with which these recreations are associated. He told how the educational exhibits had become the leading feature of the county fairs of Iowa; also of the excellent manner in which the rural schools of that State are constructed, not so much from a standpoint of beauty of architecture as from the standpoint of sanitation and convenience. He also strongly advocated the encouragement of literature and music in the rural districts.

Don Carlos Ellis, of the United States Forest Service, spoke of the relations of the forests to wealth and life. He said that the eyes of the entire nation had recently been directed toward the South by the passage of the forest bill, which provides for the setting aside of the great stretches of woodland in the Appalachian Mountains of the South, $11,000,000 having been appropriated by Congress for this purpose. The South has the finest water resources and some of the richest soils of the whole country. It is also rich in minerals. But it is especially rich in the value, beauty, and variety of its forests. These forests help to conserve directly or indirectly all the other natural resources—conserving its waters for power, navigation, and the direct use of man; its soils for its farms; its minerals, because of the need of timber for strengthening tunnels and for railroad ties in hauling minerals; its recreation and health-giving resorts, which are unexcelled for their beauty; and for conserving the game which

has its life in the woods and in the streams which the woodland keeps flowing.

The Conference recognized the duty of the South to educate the negro in the following resolution: "The educational obligation of the States to the negro should be frankly and universally recognized. Intelligent labor is an economic necessity. Habits of thrift, love of home and the land, manual skill, obedience to law, respect for one's neighbor—in a word, clean and effective living, are patent needs which the school ought to meet. The response of the negroes to the appeals for better educational conditions for their children deserves encouragement and sympathy."

The National Conservation Congress

The third National Conservation Congress that has been called together within the United States was in session in Kansas City, Mo., September 27–30. The future food supply and better farming methods were the main subjects discussed. The meeting was an effective one because of the thoughtful and sincere constructive effort that was manifested. It was a gathering of capable and earnest men to consider, without regard to political effect, a subject of prime national importance, the means of promoting the productiveness of farm land and the welfare of the inmates of the home of the farmer.

The importance of the subject was well stated by Dr. Henry W. Wallace, of Des Moines, Iowa, who, in his address, said: "The all-important problem of the conservation of soil fertility is a problem quite as important to the man who consumes farm products as to the man who produces them. Neither the farmer nor the consumer realizes the extent to which our unrivalled fertility has been wasted. Although untold millions of virgin acres have been added to our cultivated area year by year for fifty years, it is only in the last few years that the average yield per acre has shown a tendency to increase. For

more than forty years previous to the last decade, we lost more fertility on the old acreage than we gained by the addition of the virgin acres. We have, speaking generally, been *mining* not *farming* our soil and sending its fertility all over the world at the bare cost of mining. On some of the best soils naturally in the world, we produce less wheat per acre than any nation in the Old World, save Russia and India, where the soil has been farmed for thousands of years. Enough has been done to show that we can *farm* as well as *mine* fertility, create as well as waste. The conservation of this soil fertility is the greatest asset remaining to the American people."

Henry J. Waters, president of the Kansas State Agricultural College, emphasized similar ideas and said that unless farmers produce more efficiently the population will become so large the food supply will be far below requirements. He also said: "This increased production must come through better education, and this must begin in the rural school. Fully nine-tenths of our farmers go directly from the rural school to the farm. To reach them, therefore, with the sort of education that will make them better husbandmen, it will be necessary to take it to the rural schools, where the children are, who are to become the farmers of to-morrow. Waste on the farm must be stopped. Fully one-fourth of the value of the corn crop in many States is wasted for the lack of silos. Waste from preventable diseases and insect pests amounts annually to millions."

Cyril G. Hopkins, of the University of Illinois, also emphasized the appeal for strong rural schools by saying: "All public schools should offer practical scientific instruction in the principles of soil fertility, and every man and woman of mental power should acquire information and exert influence toward saving the soil, which is second in importance only to saving the soul. But the fact is that not one American in a hundred knows what the soil contains or what the crops require. They know of the

rivers of Asia, and all of the Kings of England, and perhaps of the wars of Cæsar and the orations of Cicero; but they do not know what is required to produce a grain of wheat or a kernel of corn. And yet there is as much of culture and more of use and value and of satisfaction in a study of clover roots and plant-food compounds than in Latin roots and Latin compounds."

The State Agricultural Colleges, which are among the most important factors in rural progress in the great farming region of the Basin of the Mississippi, had experts present who gave addresses and took part in the discussions of the more than 1000 delegates present from every part of the United States. There were two dominant thoughts emphasized by these speakers throughout the meetings; one was the necessity of scientific farming for the double purpose of putting an end to further soil-robbery; the second was the need of making farm life more attractive and methods of accomplishing this.

The early settlers on the fertile soil of the Mississippi Valley were under no necessity of caring for the soil by rotation of crops and the use of fertilizers. The deep rich soil, prepared by ages of accumulation before the white man appeared, tempted these settlers for years literally to mine from the soil its richness through the roots of great exhausting crops of wheat and corn. While at first this was done rather slowly, after a time came the gang-plow and the section harrow, with which, as President Wallace pointed out, a farmer "could do more soil robbing in five years than his grandfather could do in his whole lifetime." The result in impoverished land which now faces the farmer was inevitable. Efforts were made to point out such effective remedies for these conditions as: (*a*) Animal husbandry, or the feeding of animals on the products on the farm, so that no corn might be exported except "on the hoof." One of the speakers, Doctor Mumford, pointed out how whole communities had raised their farm land from a condition

Effective Remedies

of soil-exhaustion to a condition of rich productiveness by returning to the land the manure from the animals possible to feed upon its products; (*b*) The culture of legumes and other crops which rapidly enrich the soil when turned back upon it; (*c*) The treatment and cure of sick soils Under this head were discussed such subjects as remedies for acidity of soil, the use of phosphorus and other remedial ingredients.

An interesting address on the second great topic of the convention was delivered by Mrs. Harriet Wallace Ashby, of Des Moines, on "The Farmer's Wife." Mrs. Ashby rightly insisted that, as the farmer's wife is an equal sharer with the farmer in making the farm a success, she deserves consideration. "Washing dishes," she said, "after a late supper, with a nodding husband in the next room and your nearest neighbor from a quarter of a mile to a mile away, does not foster love for a farm." To remedy this condition and to make farm-life more attractive, she said, "We are insisting that the farm day be shortened and some time be given to the development of the mental and spiritual as well as the physical side of the family." Mrs. Ashby and other speakers emphasized the importance of improving the rural schools and the establishment of social neighborhood centers as a means of making women and children on the farm both contented and intelligent. The value of good agricultural courses in the schools was regarded as one of the most helpful means of promoting the welfare of the farm. Such other means of making farm life more attractive as good roads, the parcels post, and the rural church also received consideration.

Meetings in England in 1911

Some of the notable meetings occurring in England during the past year were: the Imperial Conference on Education, which was held in London some two months before the Coronation Ceremonies; the annual conference that is now held to consider rural education; and the

Universal Races Congress, which convened in the University of London in July. "The last named was the first congress of its kind, and, although not concerned principally with educational problems, was in a very broad sense educational and enlightening. Amid many speculative discussions of the moral possibilities and ultimate destiny of the lesser peoples of the earth, there were several papers embodying the results of experience in dealing with such." (See Foreign Notes in "Education" for October.)

CHAPTER XIII

EDUCATION IN THE STATES

Arkansas

The General Assembly of Arkansas added materially, during the year, to the school laws of the State by progressive and remedial educational legislation. State Superintendent George B. Cook reports the following as being the most important things done: (*a*) A State Board of Education was created and given general administrative powers; (*b*) an act was passed which permits the consolidation of weak schools, with the necessary transportation of pupils; (*c*) State aid to high schools was made possible; (*d*) twenty additional counties were brought under the compulsory attendance law, making a total now of 40 counties in which it applies; (*e*) the law permitting special school districts in rural communities was revoked; (*f*) the salaries of county superintendents were increased and their duties made clear.

Superintendent Cook also reports the institution of six weeks' summer courses at the State Normal School and the State University.

Colorado

Colorado has recently modified its child labor laws. State aid has also been arranged for weak school districts.

Marked progress during the last year was made in the consolidation of weak districts; in the opening of trade schools; and in the abolition of unsanitary drinking cups.

The most pressing educational needs are reported to be (1) Work along more practical lines; (2) an extension of industrial education; (3) the better teaching of agriculture and horticulture.

Delaware

The most vital school legislation in Delaware during the year 1911 was the establishing of a State Board of Education consisting of 7 members appointed by the Governor. Extensive powers were given the Board in the way of formulating rules for the examination of teachers and for the regulation of school equipments and the proper inspection of school buildings.

In February what is known as the Miller Bill was presented in the Legislature of Delaware. It provides for a juvenile court and the appointment of a juvenile judge in each city of 50,000 inhabitants or over. In districts outside such cities the resident judge is to act also as juvenile judge.

Boys under 17 and girls under 18 may not be incarcerated in any jail or police station, the judge or official so doing being in danger of a severe fine. For incorrigible or rebellious conduct, such youths may be probated by the juvenile court or boarded out during the term of sentence or provided with temporary or permanent homes or committed to the Ferris Industrial School for Boys or to the Girl's Industrial School.

District of Columbia

The officers of the Blake Open-Air School in Washington report great success from the movement. The room in which the pupils study and recite has twelve open windows and no heat. The children are protected by heavy flannel blankets pinned tightly around them and are furnished with hot cocoa, broth or hot milk. The pupils are reported to have been entirely free from colds and to have improved greatly in mental as well as bodily vigor. The school was planned for the especial benefit of anæmic children and those with naturally delicate constitutions.

Georgia

In Georgia, by legislative enactment, the terms State

Commissioner and County Commissioner have been changed to State Superintendent and County Superintendent; consolidation of schools has been authorized; the force of the State Superintendent was increased by the appointment of 3 State Supervisors; a new State Board of Education was appointed; and the county unit plan was endorsed. Altogether the most important school legislation that has been enacted for many years was adopted.

A general improvement in school buildings is reported. The most pressing educational need is reported to be greater local initiative, effort, and taxation.

Idaho

The entire school code in Idaho has been revised and new Certification Laws have been enacted.

State aid for high schools is under contemplation, as is also the placing of appropriations for State institutions on a mill-rate basis with the view of removing them from politics. Medical inspection for schools is also being urged.

Marked progress during the past year has been made in the teaching of agriculture and in a general raise in the standards for teaching.

The greatest needs are reported to be: (*a*) More efficient teachers for the rural schools; (*b*) with better equipment in the way of buildings, etc.

Illinois

In this State the Teachers' pension law has recently been amended and extended; there has been an increase of $1,000,000 in the State appropriation for public schools; provision has been made for the transportation of pupils and the consolidation of schools; and the use of a drinking cup in common has been prohibited.

Great improvement in rural schools is reported since the establishment of State supervision. A large increase

in the establishment of township high schools is reported. Shorter high school courses have also been provided for those who cannot remain to complete the four-year course. Open-air schools have been provided for frail children in Chicago and several other cities.

The most pressing needs of the schools are reported to be: Larger revenues and better prepared teachers.

Chicago at the beginning of the year 1911 introduced the penny lunch plan at the Jackson School in that city. This school is in the heart of the Italian district, one of the quarters in which the lunch should serve its best purpose. The plan is to introduce it as rapidly as possible into other schools, especially in the foreign districts. A thick sandwich, with jam between the slices of bread, a bowl of milk, and a small piece of candy are given for the penny.

Indiana

The following school legislation, enacted in Indiana in 1911, should be of general interest:

1. School trustees and township trustees are both permitted and recommended to institute medical inspection of school children; and teachers may now be required annually to test the sight and hearing of all pupils. A physician may, however, be employed for the purpose and two or more school corporations may combine for the employment of such a physician. These school physicians may also be required to exercise such oversight of teachers, janitors, and school buildings as may be deemed necessary for the protection of the health of the pupils and teachers.

2. Stringent laws were passed in regard to such matters as sanitary school sites; dry, well-lighted, and sanitary school buildings, with at least 225 cubic feet of air space per pupil and with the glass area not less than one-sixth the floor area—the windows to reach within at least one foot of the ceiling; proper blackboards and cloakrooms;

no water buckets or tin drinking cups; a school-room temperature of not over 70 degrees in zero weather, with a relative humidity of at least 40 per cent.; and proper water-closets and out-houses.

3. An interesting amendment to the minimum wage law reads as follows: "That the daily wages of teachers for teaching in the public schools of the State shall not be less, in the case of beginning teachers, than an amount determined by multiplying 2½ cents by the general average given such teacher in his highest grade of license at the time of contracting." This amount increases by various gradations based on the years of service until the minimum daily wage may not be less than 3½ cents per unit of average.

4. Joint schoolhouses for graded schools and for high school purposes may be erected whenever townships and towns may so elect. Transportation of pupils is provided for in all such cases.

State Superintendent Charles A. Greathouse reports a great deal of progress along the line of the study of agriculture during the past year, as well as great improvements in industrial education. A special need of higher salaries is reported in order to secure and retain teachers of broader culture and experience.

Iowa

The General Assembly in Iowa made during the past year the following important additions and amendments to the school laws of the State:

1. Provision was made for Normal Training in the eleventh and twelfth years in accredited high schools, for the especial purpose of securing well-trained teachers for rural schools. Each high school designated for this work is entitled to receive State aid to the amount of $500. The Superintendent of Public Instruction is authorized to appoint an Inspector of Normal Training

in high schools, as well as to prescribe the course of study, the rules and regulations under which the instruction is given, and the requirements for graduation in this normal course in the high schools of the State.

2. Pupils resident in school corporations not offering a four years' high school course may, after completing the courses offered in their own schools, attend the nearest high school with a four years' course at the expense of the school corporation in whose territory they reside.

3. The consolidation of school corporations for more effective school work is now possible.

The Educational Council of the Iowa State Teachers Association at its last meeting agreed to make the following recommendations to the next session of the legislature: (*a*) That the length of term for the state superintendent be extended to four years; (*b*) That the salary of the state superintendent be increased to not less than $4000; (*c*) That the state superintendent be given an inspector for high schools, in addition to the inspector for normal training in high schools already provided for —also that he be given an inspector for rural schools; (*d*) That the selection of the state superintendent shall continue to be by popular vote—any change in the manner of his selection should concern only the elimination to the greatest possible degree of all partisan or factional politics in connection with his nomination and election; (*e*) That the constitution of the state board of examiners be changed to make the board more widely representative of the various educational interests in the state.

This State Association also voted $2000 for the purpose of defraying the expenses of a committee designated by the State Superintendent to investigate courses of study adopted in other states and to prepare courses for the high school, the grades below the high school in town and city schools, and for the rural schools of the State. The committee is also to investigate country life conditions in their relation to the public school.

State Superintendent Albert M. Deyoe regards the improvement of rural schools as the most pressing educational need of the State.

Kansas

This State presents some very interesting statistics for the year 1911:

1. Fifty-five per cent. of its school population is in rural districts.

2. The following increases have occurred during the past 5 years:

In value of public school property 100 per cent.

In total expenditure for public schools 80 per cent.

In total wages paid teachers 40 per cent.

In number of high schools 100 per cent.

In enrollment in the State University 59 per cent.

3. The State now provides $500 annually for each high school maintaining a normal training course and $250 for each high school maintaining courses in household economics and agriculture.

4. One hundred and sixty high schools maintain normal training courses; 96 high schools maintain courses in household economics and agriculture; and practically all rural schools offer instruction in agriculture.

5. After May 1, 1917, teachers' certificates will be granted only to persons who have completed four years of high school work or its equivalent.

6. Six thousand pupils attend consolidated rural schools, most of which offer high school work, some for the full four years; there are 105 county superintendents, 49 of whom are women; one teacher in every three attends the State Teachers' Association; 95 per cent. of the 516,000 boys and girls of school age never have seen a saloon.

7. Under a law passed in 1911 city school boards uniformly consist of 6 members, each holding office for 4 years. Both nominations and elections are at large, and not by wards.

8. The minimum school term has been raised to 7 months and State aid is provided for districts unable to meet this provision.

E. T. Fairchild, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, reports a gratifying increase in the number of college trained teachers in the high schools; also that there is a growing conviction in Kansas that the first duty of a high school is to the community that supports it. The most pressing need is reported to be the betterment of rural schools. There is promise of important results along this line within the next five years.

Maine

Maine reports marked progress in industrial education. In the cities there has been a gratifying development of playgrounds; of medical inspection; of increased attention to delinquent and defective children; and of evening school work.

The greatest need of the State is reported to be an improvement of educational opportunities for country children. State certification of teachers and State pensions for teachers are also desired.

Massachusetts

Massachusetts made the following additions and amendments to its school laws during the past year:

1. The provision for the filing of Application for Positions to teach was modified so that upon the payment of a fee of $2 an eligible applicant's name, with his experience and qualifications, is published on a list prepared by the State Board of Education for distribution to school committees of the cities and towns of the State. The fee of all teacher's agencies is limited to 5 per cent. of the first year's salary.

2. Instruction in the principles of first aid to the injured was authorized.

3. Making only such persons eligible to teach in the

high schools of the State as have first secured a high-school teacher's certificate from the State Board of Education.

4. Authorizing the expenditure of school money for the supervision of play and games and for equipments for the same.

5. Requiring the election of a Superintendent, whose term shall be 3 years, in towns that have united for school purposes; and providing for liberal State aid for the support of such superintendency.

6. Defining certain important terms used in the law pertaining to the employment of women and children. Also making several changes in the "Age and Schooling Certificate" of minors. No illiterate minor who is not at least 16 years of age may now be employed.

7. The Massachusetts Agricultural College was authorized to establish a Normal Department for the training of teachers.

8. Defining such important terms as "vocational education," "industrial education," etc. For example: " 'Vocational education' shall mean any education the controlling purpose of which is to fit for profitable employment. 'Industrial education' shall mean that form of vocational education which fits for the trades, crafts, and manufacturing pursuits, including the occupations of girls and women carried on in workshops."

9. Authorizing towns to appropriate annually a sum not exceeding $2000 for the employment of district or other nurses.

10. Modifying the law concerning savings banks for school children.

Commissioner Snedden reports marked progress during the year in the definition and working out of details in the organization of educational vocational schools. The most pressing needs of the State are reported to be greater financial assistance for the schools and an increase in the supply of adequately trained teachers.

Michigan

In this State provision was made by the Legislature last year for paying the tuition of all country pupils to any one of the three nearest high schools.

All school holidays excepting Jan. 1, May 30, July 4, the first Monday in September, the last Thursday of November, and December 25, were abolished.

One day Institutes in the counties have proved a great success. Special progress is reported in the establishment of trade schools.

Minnesota

Important legislation in behalf of rural schools was enacted in this State during the past year. Not only were rural school districts permitted to consolidate their interests but, "For the purpose of promoting a better condition in rural schools, and to encourage industrial training, including the elements of agriculture, manual training, and home economics, the board in a consolidated school district is authorized to establish schools of two or more departments, provide for the transportation of pupils, or expend a reasonable amount for room and board of pupils whose attendance at school can more economically and conveniently be provided for by such means; locate and acquire sites of not less than two acres, and erect necessary and suitable buildings thereon, when money therefor has been voted by the district. They shall submit to the superintendent of public instruction a plot of the school grounds, indicating the site of the proposed buildings, plans and specifications for the school building and its equipment, and the equipment of its premises."

State Superintendent C. G. Schulz reports important extension of agricultural and other industrial courses; an improvement in the type of school buildings erected; and favorable progress in regard to teacher's pensions. Under the amended law of 1911 every city in the State having

a population of 10,000 or over may now establish a "Teachers Retirement Fund Association." A portion of the money for this fund may be raised by taxation to the extent of one-tenth of a mill. The greatest needs of the State are reported to be; (1) A trained and permanent body of teachers; (2) more men for the upper grades and for the high school courses.

Missouri

The new school legislation enacted in Missouri during the past year provided for: (1) Apportionment of the State school funds on the basis of the number of teachers and the total number of days attendance; (2) the transportation of pupils; (3) the raising of the requirements for teachers' certificates; (4) a more rigid compulsory attendance law.

State aid for high schools is under consideration as well as more liberal support for the State educational institutions. A growing sentiment in favor of industrial work in the schools is reported, as is also a sentiment in favor of rural high schools. The most pressing educational needs are reported to be; (*a*) More money for schools; (*b*) better trained teachers; (*c*) better buildings and equipments.

Montana

Recent new school legislation in Montana provides for: (*a*) The transportation of pupils at public expense; (*b*) industrial education in the public schools; (*c*) allowing graduates of the School of Education of the State University to teach in the public high schools without examination; (*d*) the employment of superintendents for 3 year periods; (*e*) the appointment of an educational code commission to report to the next meeting of the Legislature.

Great strides have been made in industrial education in the State and a spirit of progress and general optimism is reported as prevailing.

Nebraska

Nebraska reports improving rural conditions and a decided improvement in the standard for the certification of teachers. Several of the cities have been taking up with especial vigor giving the pupils a strong practical working basis in the use of good English.

The most pressing educational need of the State is reported to be the working out of a practical plan for giving the children in the sparsely settled regions equal school advantages with those of other parts of the State.

New Jersey

The educational commission appointed in New Jersey several years ago to investigate the operation of the schools of the State made its report early in 1911. The Commission recommended that a Commissioner of Education be appointed by the Governor for a term of five years at a yearly salary of $10,000 and that, if necessary, the Governor should be permitted to go outside of the State in selecting a proper person. In accordance with this provision Calvin N. Kendall, Superintendent of the schools of Indianapolis, was selected as Commissioner of Education for the State. Other recommendations of the Commission that were adopted are as follows: (*a*) That school boards be cut down to a membership of seven in cities and of five in smaller school districts; (*b*) that the State Commissioner and his expert assistants shall have general supervision of school affairs in the State—with control of the subjects taught and their teaching, as well as the erection and maintenance of school buildings; (*c*) that school classes shall be limited in size to 45 pupils; (*d*) that classes be established for defectives; (*e*) that manual training be introduced into the elementary curriculum; (*f*) that no one connected with the schools shall be permitted to make campaign contributions; (*g*) that the salaries of the county superintendents be increased to

$3,000; (*h*) that the school authorities shall have control over all children of school age and be the only ones to issue permits for children to go to work.

New Mexico

There has been no meeting of the Legislature in this State since 1909. But at the meeting of the first legislature under the new state government, which will be late in 1912, such matters as the county unit, consolidation, etc., will be under consideration.

Marked progress has been reported along the lines of: (*a*) Better prepared teachers; (*b*) lengthening of the school term; (*c*) replacing old schoolhouses with modern buildings; (*d*) and better and more efficient supervision.

The greatest need is reported to be that of better prepared teachers.

New York

The district superintendents in New York, who took the place of the old school commissioners, assumed office Jan. 1, 1911. These district superintendents each now have charge of about 50 country schools. The law exacts professional qualifications for the office to the extent of the holding of certificates to teach of a grade which would exempt them from further examination. They must also pass an examination in agricultural courses and the teaching of the same. They are chosen for a period of five years and the salary is at least $1200 with an additional $300 for expenses. Two of the counties of the state have raised the salary to $3000.

The old method of choosing school commissioners at the general election became unsatisfactory because of the way in which it threw the election into "politics." Under the new plan each "town" elects 2 school directors, and the directors of all of the towns of a supervisory district form a board of school directors who elect the district superintendent for the district. As he may now be chosen

from any part of the State, the new elections show that college graduates, normal school graduates, and men and women of experience in school supervision have been chosen instead of people with political affiliations as heretofore too often was the case.

A bill to establish 750 free State Scholarships is being pressed, as is also a bill for the establishment of a State truant school. One of the pressing needs is reported to be that of uniform provisions of law for the various city school systems of the State. At present the cities are classified as of the first-class, second-class, or third-class, and it is manifest that propositions to modify the school-system of a city are apt to appear whenever its charter is brought before the Legislature for revision.

The Rochester Board of Education early in 1911 formally abolished all fraternities and sororities in the high schools under their charge. The reasons given for their action were that they "promote exclusive and undemocratic class distinctions, fix premature and artificial social standards, detract seriously from the regular work of the schools, stimulate extravagant habits and involve a burdensome expense."

North Carolina

The General Assembly in North Carolina at its 1911 session authorized:

1. The establishment of a "country farm-life school," for the training of boys and girls in farm-life and home-making, in every county whose voters so decide. The course of study for such schools must be approved by the State Superintendent of Public Instruction and an advisory board on farm-life appointed by him. The course of study "shall include practical work on the farm for the boys and practical work in all subjects relating to housekeeping and homemaking for the girls."

2. Counties to vote upon the levying and collection of a special tax on property and polls to supplement the

county school fund. This special tax shall not exceed 30 cents on the $100.

State Superintendent Joyner reports: A new schoolhouse for every day in the year including Sundays; professional improvement of teachers through institutes, county associations, and reading-courses; better rural supervision of schools; and county commencements and graduation of pupils. The large cities of the State have also made special progress in introducing manual training, domestic science, and kindergartens. The greatest educational need of the State is reported to be a compulsory attendence law to replace the optional law now pertaining and which has no "teeth."

North Dakota

Marked progress is reported in this State along the educational lines of: (*a*) State aid to rural and graded schools; and (*b*) improved standards for teaching. The cities of the State have made progress in establishing domestic science courses and manual training.

The most imperative need is reported to be better preparation for those intending to teach.

Ohio

At the meeting of the General Assembly in Ohio the following school legislation, either through amendments or new legislation, was enacted:

1. Boards of education were empowered to purchase or lease real estate for playground purposes and to provide the necessary apparatus for the same.

2. City superintendents may now be elected for a period of 5 years.

3. County boards of school examiners may now grant teachers' certificates for 1, 2, 3, 5 or 8 years. All 5 and 8 year certificates are regarded as "professional certificates" and may "be renewed without examination at the discretion of the examining board."

4. Instruction in agriculture was made obligatory in all but city schools. For the purpose of supervising this work the State is divided into 4 agricultural districts, each having a "district supervisor of agriculture" who works under the direction of the State Commissioner of Common Schools.

5. On and after September 1, 1912, the ability to teach elementary agriculture is to be included in the qualifications for positions in any elementary school of "any village, township, or special school district." This provision also applies to high school teachers and superintendents for the same school districts.

6. School-teachers' pension funds were authorized wherever boards of education may so decide, $2 per month being deducted from the salaries of all teachers signing an agreement to embrace the benefits of such fund, and all new teachers being required to sign the agreement.

State Commissioner Frank W. Miller reports special progress along the lines of teachers' pensions; the teaching of domestic science, physical culture, and vocational training—with the appointment of supervisors for each of these departments. The greatest need of the State is reported to be better schools in rural districts.

Oklahoma

This State, during the past year, provided for a new State Board of Education consisting of 7 members. The Board includes the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, who is its president, and 6 members appointed by the Governor, "with the advice and consent of the Senate," for a period of six years. This law tends to centralize the regulation of the public schools and gives the new Board the following powers: (*a*) The general supervision of the public schools of the State; (*b*) the formulating and adopting of courses of study for the common schools and county normal institutes, and the

arranging of courses of study and adopting of text-books for use in the higher educational institutions of the State; (*c*) the formulating of rules and regulations governing the issuance of all certificates to teach in the public schools of the State; (*d*) the preparing of questions for the examination of applicants for county and city certificates to teach in the public schools of the State; (*e*) the examining of applicants for State certificates to teach in the public schools of the State, and for conductors' and instructors' certificates to teach in the county normal institutes; (*f*) the preparing of examination questions for graduates from the eighth grade of the public schools; (*g*) the classifying of the public high schools of the State; (*h*) the formulating and adopting of courses of study for State pupils' reading circles and for State teachers' reading circles, and the selection of books to be used in said reading circles, with the preparation of questions for the issuance of reading circle certificates.

Oregon

The most important legislation of the year in Oregon was that creating county educational boards in counties containing at least 60 school districts. These boards consist each of 4 members appointed by the county superintendent. One of the important duties of the county boards is the appointment of supervisors who shall work under the direction of the county superintendent in supervising the work of the schools in the territory assigned to them and in enforcing the course of study prescribed by the State Board of Education for the same. No supervisor can be provided for a territory containing less than 20 nor more than 50 school districts.

Some changes were also made in the law which provides for union high schools. State Superintendent L. R. Alderman reports a gratifying development of high schools especially in rural districts under the law which has provided for these union schools. Some of the pressing

needs of the State he reports to be: (*a*) Better sanitation in all schools; (*b*) the uplifting of rural schools. The good work done by rural supervisors is helping materially in this direction.

Pennsylvania

Early in the year 1911, Pennsylvania succeeded in recodifying and remodeling her school law in a way that should mark a distinct educational gain. Some of the provisions of the new law are as follows:

1. Independent control of taxation and borrowing for the new Board of Public Education of Philadelphia, with a minimum tax limit of five mills and a reduction in the number of members of its Board of Education, so as to simplify the transaction of official business.
2. Establishment of a State Board of Education.
3. Establishment of a State school fund.
4. Reduction of the membership of Boards of Education throughout the State.
5. Reasonable provisions for selection of text-books.
6. Provisions in the interest of higher education throughout the State.

In addition to the successful enactment of the above measures, the safeguarding of the appointment and promotion of teachers from personal or political influence was partly successful.

This new school code is spoken of in the Department of Education at Washington as "perhaps the most extensive and radical instance of educational legislation that has ever been accomplished in a single act in this country."

Utah

At the last meeting of the legislature in Utah the following was enacted:

1. The State Board of Education is now to promote the establishment of libraries and gymnasiums throughout the State.

2. To be eligible to enter the examination for teachers' certificates all applicants must now file with the State Board of Education evidence of having had at least 4 years of high school education or its equivalent, unless they have already had 3 years of successful teaching experience in the schools of the State.

3. Requiring that every pupil shall be tested for defective sight or hearing, or for diseased teeth, or for breathing through the mouth. This examination must be made when the pupil is enrolled and once each year thereafter. The teachers are required to employ the tests established by the State Board of Education for this purpose, although school boards are permitted instead to employ physicians for the purpose.

4. Important legislation concerning the establishment and maintenance of high schools in the State, a State-tax of one-half a mill being collected for the purpose.

Utah's excellent Teachers' Retirement Law remains unmodified.

State Superintendent A. C. Nelson reports marked progress in high school work under the stimulus of the new high school law. One of the great needs of the State is reported to be the consolidation of small districts and small schools into larger ones for the sake of better organization and stronger work.

Wisconsin

The University of Wisconsin now offers, through its extension work department, a number of courses that can be taken by correspondence. These courses include such languages as Latin, Greek, French, German, and Italian; mechanical, civil, electrical, stationary, and structural engineering; courses in history; such physical sciences as botany, bacteriology, geology, astronomy, and chemistry; and the more advanced subjects such as philosophy, sociology, and political economy. These courses are designated to meet the desire for greater

intelligence and efficiency on the part of those whose circumstances will not permit residence work.

South Carolina

There was no meeting of the Legislature in this State in 1911.

Progress is reported in: (*a*) Increased school enrollment and average attendance; (*b*) the lengthening of the school term; (*c*) the erection of modern school buildings—nearly 100; (*d*) a deep-seated interest in education; (*e*) special progress in securing medical inspection.

The most pressing educational need is reported to be a better recognition of the value and authority of County Superintendents.

South Dakota

In South Dakota special State aid is being sought for rural schools and for agricultural high schools. The new law that is being urged contemplates provision for normal training in high schools.

Interesting progress is noted in the industrial contests between rural school pupils in corn and potato raising and in sewing and cooking. Elementary agriculture was taught in every normal school (public and private) in the State for the first time last year. The Normal School Course has been lengthened one year. Medical inspection is increasing and the employment of school nurses has gotten a start.

The most pressing needs are reported to be: Such a reorganization of country school work as will give to the country child as good educational advantages as the city child enjoys; consolidation and agricultural high schools are regarded as the most effective means to this end.

Tennessee

Tennessee recently enacted legislation which permits county school boards to issue bonds for school buildings and equipments.

Marked progress in the State as reported embraces:

1. The opening of 2 new State Normal Schools for whites—also that 2 others are in course of construction. One of the latter is to be an agricultural and industrial normal school for negroes.

2. A considerable increase in the number of county high schools.

The problems connected with the rural elementary schools are regarded as the most important educational needs of the State. The program for the improvement of the rural schools involves such questions as consolidation, transportation, vitalizing the course of study, compulsory attendance for a proper length of time, better teachers and better buildings, proper supervision, but, above all, ample funds. State Superintendent J. W. Brister reports hopeful improvements in the schools of some of the larger cities of the State.

Texas

The new school legislation in Texas in 1911 provides for: (*a*) A State Normal Board of Regents; (*b*) a textbook law; (*c*) a new certification law; (*d*) rural high schools; (*e*) the classification of the country schools into primary, intermediate, and high schools. Courses of study are prescribed for each of these.

Progress is reported in the introduction of manual training, domestic science, etc. The pressing needs are reported to be: (*a*) Legalizing a larger tax rate for school purposes; (*b*) better prepared and better paid teachers.

Vermont

In Vermont the last legislature: (*a*) Raised the compulsory school age from 15 to 16 years; (*b*) lengthened the school year to July 1st instead of April 1st; (*c*) passed a uniform system of examination prescribed for all children desiring high school instruction; (*d*) made provision for pensioning teachers who have served for 30

years; (*e*) established a State school for defective children also a State school of agriculture; (*f*) established teacher training courses in certain high schools and academics for the purpose of training teachers for the rural schools; (*g*) and provided that hereafter none but high school and academy graduates may be admitted to the normal schools.

State Superintendent Mason S. Stone reports marked progress in awakening the people to a demand for better schools. The most pressing educational needs are reported to be a closer affiliation between the school and the people, and a closer application of school instruction to community interests.

Washington

No important school legislation during the year 1911 is reported from the State of Washington. However, a teacher's retirement law, State wide in its scope, and rural school supervision are under consideration for legislative enactment.

State Superintendent Henry B. Dewey reports a continued and rapid consolidation of school districts in a way that is making possible a better gradation of the pupils and a material strengthening of the work. In this connection he especially emphasizes the fact that consolidation and the transportation of pupils greatly improve the regularity of attendance of pupils. As some of the causes of irregular attendance in rural districts are poor roads, long distances to walk, inclement weather, and the colds and other disabilities due to sitting in wet clothing, transportation in well-sheltered wagons greatly improves attendance. "The facility and regularity with which pupils are brought to the consolidated school has the effect of shortening the distance between the farm-home and the school. The child in its most important task—attending school—is assisted by an agency which leaves nothing to chance and little to choice. The stream of children which

the wagon starts schoolward is so strong and steady that the educational affairs of the community assume a totally different aspect"

West Virginia

This State secured during the past year important legislation establishing: (*a*) An excellent child labor law; (*b*) State aid for high schools with a general improvement in the laws pertaining to high schools; (*c*) provision for "emergency certificates;" (*d*) a medical inspection law; (*e*) an increase in the salary of County Superintendents.

State Superintendent M. P. Shawkey reports the establishment of 25 new high schools within the last year, two of these being county high schools. As the laws of the State provide for the consolidation of schools and for the free transportation of pupils in such consolidated districts, West Virginia is now in a position to encourage both graded elementary work and the higher work. Superintendent Shawkey also reports that all of the cities of the State now have medical inspection in accordance with the law requiring such inspection in "each independent school district in the State."

A more liberal provision of funds to improve rural schools through better buildings and equipments and through high class teaching and supervision, is mentioned as one of the needs of the State.

Wisconsin

During 1911 Wisconsin enacted: (*a*) A mandatory retirement law; (*b*) a bonus of $150 annually to a rural district closing a school and transporting its pupils to a neighboring school, for the purpose of helping it to pay for this transportation and its share of the expense involved in maintaining the union school; (*c*) a law requiring industrial education in cities and towns of 5000 or over.

Marked progress is reported along the lines of increasing the State appropriation for normal schools and the State

University. The normal schools have recently been authorized to do two years of college work, a plan that seems to promise good results.

This State recently provided by legislation for an extension of its school activities by establishing a State Board of Industrial Education. This Board is to consist of the State Superintendent of Education, the Dean of the Extension Department, and the Dean of the College of Engineering of the State university as ex-officio members, to serve with 6 members to be appointed by the Governor of the State, 3 of whom are to be employers and 3 employees. An Assistant who shall have charge of industrial education is to be appointed by the State Superintendent together with such other assistants as he shall deem necessary. The bill also provides for local boards who have the authority to arrange with the extension division of the State University for instruction in such branches as cannot well be provided for under local conditions.

Under this act a vocational school must be established if 25 persons qualified to attend so petition the local board. These schools shall be open to all persons over 14 years of age who are not required by law to attend other schools. Non-residents may attend upon the payment of a tuition of 50 cents per week by the municipality or district in which they live. A special tax of not more than one-half a mill may be levied for these vocational schools. The State assists in their support to the extent of one-half the expenditure for each school, but not to an amount exceeding $3000 for any one school. The present act limits the number of schools that may receive State aid to 30.

This same act provides for the training of teachers for this vocational work by accepting the Stout Institute of Menomonie as the regularly established normal training school and by making the State Board of Industrial Education the legal trustees of this Institute. The Act recites, "The purposes and objects of the Institute shall

be to instruct young persons in industrial arts and occupations and the theory and art of teaching such, and to give such instruction as will lead to a fair knowledge of the liberal arts, a just and seemly appreciation of the nobility and dignity of labor, and in general to promote diligence, economy, efficiency, honor, and good citizenship." A stronger statement or a wiser provision for vocational education it would be difficult to conceive.

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